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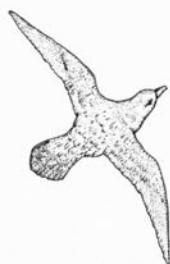
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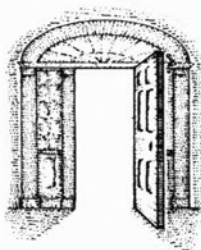
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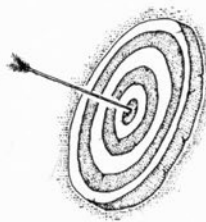
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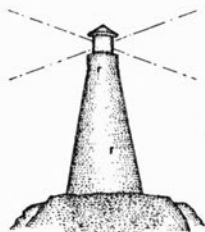
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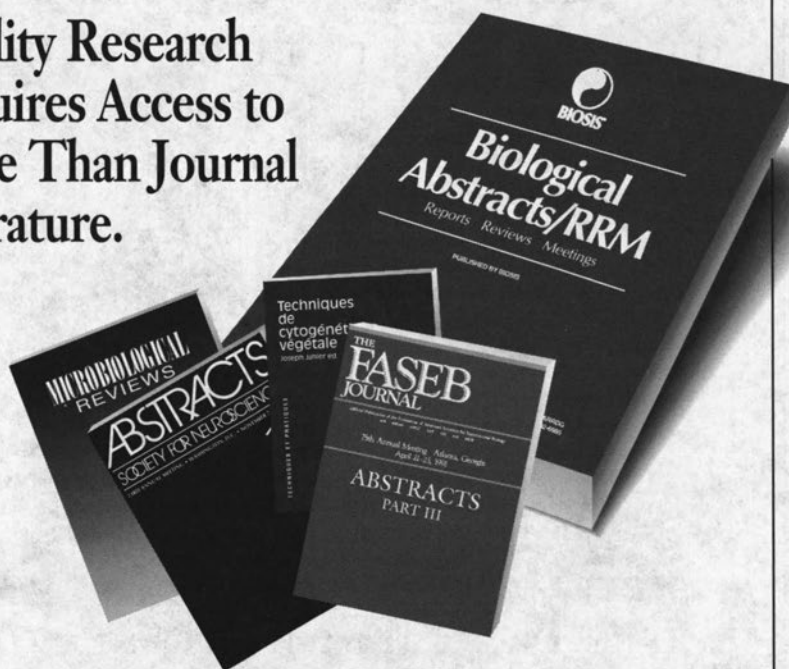
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Guest Editorial

Small Futures?

In 1993 The New-York Historical Society came close to shutting its doors for good. The California Historical Society ground to a halt several years ago and is slowly trying to resurrect itself. Small denominational colleges and seminaries continue to sell off their rare book collections. The John Crerar Library found salvation, but only at the cost of its institutional independence, when it merged with the University of Chicago. More recently, the Annenberg Institute—formerly Dropsie College—has become part of the School of Arts and Sciences at the University of Pennsylvania, thus ending for now a long and complicated odyssey.

And so libraries come and libraries go. It seems a story so familiar as to be unremarkable. The fate of libraries usually attracts little interest or attention in the media or in our professional literature. The case of The New-York Historical Society is instructive. It has garnered a few columns in the *New York Times* but little else. There has not been much if anything about it in the professional literature. As we fill journals and conferences with more and more papers on the possible obsolescence of libraries in the electronic age, we remain oddly silent in front of the real situations of real institutions. We seem prepared to accept the demise of libraries as natural happenings, as natural as life cycles, evolution, and the free market. I remember once seeing plans for a new central library at the University of Chicago drawn up in the 1930s. They had space reserved for the Newberry Library. The assumption of a sort of Darwinian inevitability is revealing.

There are thousands of small, private institutions in this country with topical

collections embracing medicine and the sciences, religion, ethnic and regional history, the arts and culture. A few are well funded and well endowed; many, however, exist in a twilight zone, wrestling with a difficult present and moving toward an uncertain future. Their histories and destinies, on the whole, have been little studied or appreciated. But it needs to be asked whether we as a profession, we as citizens, don't in fact have some larger interest in the future of these institutions and their collections. Why do they change identities or disappear altogether? What is lost and gained in such passages? More than protests or laments, analyses and evaluations are needed that can be used to inform policy, management, and strategic thinking. But first we must become engaged with the topic. We must feel a keener sense of urgency about the fates of some of our most interesting, valuable, and irreplaceable cultural institutions. I have no specific recommendations to make at this point, nothing to put on the table except a modest proposal that more attention, watchfulness, and thoughtful consideration of institutions become part of our professional agenda.

Habent sua fata libelli: books have their own destiny. And so do the repositories that house them. Created for specific purposes and identifiable constituencies, these institutions often outlive their original *raison d'être* and fail to find a new one. Constituencies disappear and with them interest and support. Meanwhile, policies and programs remain locked into place, frozen in time. The institution ceases to have any organic relationship with the world around it. In

effect it dies. But not quite. Library collections are not easily relinquished. Their very materiality proclaims, "We exist, therefore we should exist." The fact that no one may be using them, that they are slumbering quietly on the shelves is less important than their sheer presence. As the Israelis say in another context, they create facts. Since the Renaissance, if not earlier, books have served as symbols of entitlement, confirmations of status, proofs of position. And what has been true for individuals has been just as true for the clubs, societies, fraternal and professional organizations they have created. To have an organization without a library or museum, without objects and material presences, is to have a phantom organization. Thus, patriots, true believers, and well-wishers see in such collections that symbolic capital that certifies the institution's right to exist. The collections become their own rationale.

This institutional sclerosis, however, is usually fatal. What happens next is the most important part of the story, yet here I would argue is where professional nostrums are open to challenge and where there is a clear and pressing need for sustained analysis. The worst case, we imagine, is dismemberment: the collections are dispersed, sold off. But is this necessarily a bad outcome? Bad for whom? For the institution, surely. But who else loses in this transaction? The community? Scholars? How and why? If the collection has lost its constituency in one venue, could not the books find life in other, more congenial settings? The compromise position—and often the only meaningful alternative to dismemberment—is merger: finding a healthy and sympathetic partner. Identity and independence may be sacrificed, but collections are retained intact. This, we imagine, is a desirable outcome. A small, struggling institution is absorbed by an enlightened, well-managed, cognate organization with constituencies, support, and clout. The assumption here is that collections will be better cared for when integrated into a larger fabric of resources that will insure their use and

well-being over time. Bigger is better, safety in size. Yet, is this always or necessarily a desirable outcome? Is it not possible that sleeping collections will continue to sleep, only this time in the company of thousands and thousands of volumes?

However, there are serious obstacles to studying and appraising the fates of libraries. As a profession, we understandably tend to be more concerned with those nuts-and-bolts issues that make up our working days. The destinies of institutions, unless they impinge directly on us, are not topics to which we have devoted any significant attention. Moreover, the general topic is a sensitive one, involving delicate issues of management and stewardship. Yet such issues are aired regularly in business publications covering the ebb and flow of corporations. There is no *prima facie* reason why we could not be just as open. We can admit that the field may be sown with land mines and at the same try to pick our way through them. Not to do so is to beg the issue of accountability, and that, I think, truly is the worst case scenario—for institutions and for us as a profession. The most formidable obstacles to the study of institutions, however, are usually thrown up by the institutions themselves, who often prefer to work out their futures in private for fear of calling attention to chronic problems. While such fears are valid, they inhibit learning and probably restrict options open to the institution. We all lose in the process.

Even as I write, institutions are quietly negotiating their futures. I know of several here in the Philadelphia area, but—alas—prudence and respect counsel discretion in discussing their situations publicly. I wish them all well, and yet I am bothered that these are simply more narratives unfolding out of sight, out of mind. Trustees and boosters will work among themselves to reach acceptable conclusions. Someday we will learn of the outcomes, but we will have learned little else. And that will be it. Books do indeed have their own destiny.

MICHAEL RYAN,
University of Pennsylvania

Paradigm Lost, Paradigm Regained? A Persistent Personnel Issue in Academic Librarianship, II

Allen B. Veaner

Computerization has transformed the bulk of library work from moving physical objects, for example, producing, sorting, and filing catalog cards, to electronically manipulating a vast array of symbols. In so doing, it has transformed virtually all library employees into knowledge workers; the once-simple bifurcate division of employees into librarians and support staff seems no longer tenable. What, then is the proper role for the academic librarian? Cautioning against overenthusiastic endorsement of popular, industry-derived management methods, the author focuses on the intellectual character of academic librarianship and defines the concept of librarians' programmatic responsibilities. The author maintains that programmatic responsibilities are by definition undellegatable and constitute an exclusive locus of power within the profession. The role of academic librarians—the design and management of information systems for the academic community—is determined by these exclusive programmatic responsibilities and related powers. To meet new conditions, academic librarianship requires a new manifesto derived directly from the academic community itself in preference to ready formulas from business and industry.



Although C. C. Williamson raised the question of appropriate staffing in libraries over seventy years ago, in academic libraries the matter began to develop as a management problem only some forty years later when two powerful forces converged: the enormous expansion of higher education and the beginnings of national development

in library automation.¹ The concurrent achievement of faculty status by librarians, particularly in the newer public universities, brought the question into further relief.

The context of modern academic librarianship continues to change with extraordinary speed, owing to ever-accelerating technological development. The current panoply of digital devices

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and services ranges far beyond the wild-est imaginings of the most optimistic futurists of even a decade ago. New wonders now appear so routinely that Vannevar Bush's fabled Memex seems almost within reach. We also see the commercial sector making a serious bid for the library's traditional turf. Inside academe, we see continuing unmistakable movement toward integration of computer and library services into a single entity that can broadcast or narrow-cast information and data. We observe a sea change in graduate education for our field as more and more library schools are closed; those that remain are reviewing their missions or shifting program foci. These events interact powerfully with the roles of staff at all levels and are altering roles and relationships rapidly and irrevocably.

In 1982 the present author pointed to the increasing awareness of the developing stresses between librarians and support staff, the rise of role blurring, and the migration of complex work downward in the work hierarchy.² In 1988 Charles Lowry observed that all of librarianship had been transformed into a capital-intensive, high-technology light industry, something quite different from its recent circumstance as a labor-intensive craft workshop—a structural change implying different personnel arrangements.³ In two important papers published in 1992 Larry Oberg carefully traced the emergence of paraprofessionals in academic libraries, surveyed their role, status, and working conditions, and concluded that the role identity problem had become acute.^{4,5} A review of current literature, conference programs, and network communications makes clear why: in a relatively brief time computerization has wrought a dramatic, unexpected and unintended transformation in the work environment—virtually all employees of academic libraries in reality have become knowledge workers. Work classification schemes have not fully caught up with this new reality; the once-easy bipolar division of staff into librarians and support personnel has become uncertain

and subject to much questioning. Indeed, within ACRL's discussion group, Personnel Administrators and Staff Development Officers of Large Research Libraries, the proper allocation of work is often the subtext for major deliberation on topics having quite different names. Far from reaching an easy accommodation, the tensions and irritations within the academic community have increased to the point where personnel officers see this issue as more and more complex, increasingly vexing, and unlikely to go away. It may now be appropriate to reexamine the factors distinguishing the several strata of staff in the academic library and their respective responsibilities. This paper reviews current trends and attempts a response.

A good starting point is the general perception of librarians. Among lay people, sometimes within various layers of government and—regrettably—sometimes within academe itself, there often remains puzzlement over what librarians do and a troubling perception that whatever it is, almost anyone can do it. After informing people that we are librarians, we have all occasionally received the blank look and the questions, not always articulated: "Well, what do you actually do?" Or: "Does your work really require graduate education?" Increasingly, we face these questions from our campus administrations, from rival factions on campus, from our governing boards, and from the politicians in the state legislatures. Why are librarians—specifically academic librarians—perceived so vaguely? I see at least five reasons for this uncertain role identity.

Failure to Socialize Ourselves Adequately to the Academic Community. In the past we often focused far more on rules, codes, and procedures than on intellectual substance, leadership, and management responsibilities. More recently and more importantly, we have failed to explain to the academic politicians to whom we report the nature of the value we add to information, or even that we add value. These types of misfocus communicated a weak image to important campus constituencies and,

to the extent that they endure, continue to do so.

Failure to Define our Responsibilities to the Public at Large. We like to believe that libraries and librarians have an obvious intrinsic value. Thus we reinforce—by default—the popular concept that libraries are self-organizing entities that function more or less automatically without any need for professional leadership.

In librarianship and information management, commercial exploitation of high technology has been evident for some time and is becoming increasingly vigorous. In a strongly worded piece Bruce Park suggests there is a danger that new technology can marginalize librarians—make us inessential—much as the computer has already marginalized surveying work and made the old-fashioned surveyor obsolete, and as programs like AutoCad have outmoded mechanical drafting.⁶

Reluctance to promote ourselves contributes heavily to our low visibility and helps convey the notion that libraries and librarians, while fairly harmless, are quite simply dispensable.

In an equally forthright paper S. Michael Malinconico rails against the stubbornly held, romantic concept that the value of the library is or should be self-evident to the client:

... the worth of quality library and information services cannot be assumed to be intrinsically obvious to everyone—not even to those on whose behalf the services are performed. Unless librarians can articulate the value they add to the efforts of others, they cannot expect them to divine the value of what librarians do. It is essential that librarians communicate with nonlibrarians about what they do.⁷

Both Park and Malinconico convincingly illustrate what a poor job we have done of educating the public about our profession and of politicking with the

power brokers. More recently, in a hard-hitting guest editorial, "Political Networking," Karyle Butcher likewise faults the profession for failing to market itself effectively: "We have not translated what we do into words that make sense to the majority of taxpayers."⁸ Assumed value is not likely to be an effective weapon either in information turf wars or in budget battles.

A Damaging Reluctance to Take Due Credit. Unlike lawyers and doctors, librarians have modesty in spades; self-effacement has been our creed. But if we do not trumpet who we are and remain unsure of what our duties and responsibilities are and from whence they originate, how can we expect others to understand the vitality of our role? Reluctance to promote ourselves contributes heavily to our low visibility and helps convey the notion that libraries and librarians, while fairly harmless, are quite simply dispensable.

A Persistent and Pervasive Penchant for Denial. Because we dislike any paradigm that looks elitist, hierarchical, or otherwise stratified, we tend to deny layered structures. Most of us come from a liberal tradition; we like equality and democracy. But higher education is not democracy and denial of academic Realpolitik weakens our capacity to participate in normal campus infighting.

Devaluation of Work Done in a Largely Feminized Profession. The pernicious denigration of "women's work," treated at length by Roma Harris, helps maintain a stereotype of librarianship as an unsubstantial line of work.⁹

IMPACT OF CHANGED TECHNOLOGICAL CONTEXT

It is a commonplace that the computer has radically altered the way we do things in libraries. Certainly the mechanics of our processes, the physical activities, have changed totally. But the watershed to which the computer has brought librarianship reaches far beyond a simple mechanical impact on methods and procedures. When most employees are transformed into knowledge workers, work itself changes and

the nature of power in the organization is altered; both are redistributed. During the past two decades we have seen complex procedures continually move downward in the work hierarchy and ever more complex abstract work move steadily upward. Whole categories of work have totally disappeared and are no longer even available for assignment to a lower level of staffing. Work itself has become more and more complex, more intellectually demanding—exactly opposite to the expectations of early automation pioneers. E-mail has given all staff greatly increased powers of communication. Information that was once the private preserve of middle-level managers is now gathered and analyzed by computer and is available to almost anyone at a terminal. Beyond work procedures themselves, management “turf” has also been redistributed: many decisions that once required a librarian-supervisor’s intervention are now routinely and effectively made by support staff. These radical shifts are characterized by two aspects, one distributive and the other preemptive.

Distributive and Preemptive Aspects of Change

For a long time the academic library held its clients as a virtually captive market—much as IBM did in data processing and the Big Three in automobiles. Now the distributive aspect of change has destroyed the old centrality of the catalog, the computer center and even the library itself. The breakdown of this former information service monopoly has weakened the librarian’s gatekeeping function. Inside the library we have trained a great many support staff to become information workers; they operate systems, provide services, and understand complexities which heretofore were known only to members of the trade. Outside, entrepreneurs with a few dollars and some relatively inexpensive hardware and software can acquire (or access) databases and claim a capacity to provide information services. But these “providers” need not possess graduate education, talent, professional dedica-

tion, or personal integrity. With its constant attention to profits, the commercial sector is not obliged to supply the kind of social and intellectual value librarians add to information: critical evaluation of sources, open interplay of intellectual freedom and the wide spectrum of opinion and fact, freedom from the narrowing influences of specific ideologies, concern for equal access regardless of financial capacity—in short, the total service ethic. The preemptive aspect of the new technological context is straightforward: methodological shift is unidirectional. One cannot retain or return to old ways.

In many ways this preemptive aspect is hardly a concern; indeed, who would want to return to the old ways? But the distributive aspect offers both opportunity and hazard. The opportunity is obvious, but why is there any hazard? Because funders are politicians—not information technologists or information professionals—it is relatively easy for business to sell products, systems, and services to them. Whether the politicians are in academe or in government is irrelevant; there is not that much difference.

In the real world when bureaucrat and technologist meet, perception very often outpowers reality. In commerce the best products do not necessarily garner the highest sales—observe how hype sells software. Hence it is easy for those in power to make a wrong choice. If we librarians keep a low profile and maintain an indistinct picture of who we are and what we do, we contribute to the confusion and, ultimately, almost guarantee that the politicians will choose the wrong systems and the wrong staff mix for providing information to the scholarly and general publics. Many system and software vendors think they already have a very good idea of how to displace knowledgeable (but comparatively expensive) people and make a great deal of profit while doing it. Such commercial providers are usually driven entirely by the marketplace and lack the values that librarians have internalized through their graduate education and socialization to a profession.

These distributive and preemptive changes coupled to an unclear picture of our role bring us to the key question of who academic librarians are and the nature of the work they actually perform.

THE CRITICAL ISSUE: DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES— WHO WE ARE AND WHAT WE DO

There are four aspects to the pivotal issues of who librarians are, what they do, and from whence their responsibilities come: the concept of the library program, the distinction between position and job, the ideas of programmatic responsibilities and programmatic leadership, and the failed concept of enumerated task lists.¹⁰

Primacy of the Library Program

The foundation of librarianship as a profession lies fundamentally in the concept of the library program, which I have defined elsewhere as follows:

A program is a mental construct, directive in character and emerging from an institution's mission, goals and objectives, that determines what an institution spends its money on, who is authorized to spend that money, and how it may be spent.¹¹

To focus this concept as sharply as possible I have coined the expression "programmatic responsibilities," and to concentrate the idea further, I maintain that an academic library program is an exclusive locus of authority and power—it is not something equally distributed among every constituency in the workplace.

Distinction between Position and Job

Even though nearly everyone in an academic library is now a knowledge worker, I maintain that there are substantive differences between what librarians ought to do and what support staff ought to do and that these differences can be defined. If we do not accept some kind of distinction as axiomatic, we must surrender any claim that librarianship is a profession: work that can be done by anyone cannot be professional. To help characterize these differ-

ences I define a distinction between position and job.¹² The difference is intimately related to the concepts of programmatic leadership and programmatic responsibilities:

A position is a node of power and influence over the organization's program in that it represents the opportunity to make choices and decisions that influence the direction in which the organization moves. Job is a construct altogether different. . . . It is much more specific . . . being tied to definite, usually assigned responsibilities.¹³

There is yet one more aspect to the difference between position and job. Obviously every employed person "spends" money simply by virtue of drawing a salary. But this is not an expenditure in the programmatic sense. Librarians, by virtue of their positions, possess an authority beyond the pro forma and are charged with the *decisive* responsibility to spend money. They can decide to spend it on X and not on Y. Because programmatic responsibilities are broad, generic, and wide-ranging, librarians' expenditure decisions impinge upon the library as a totality, not merely upon one or a few narrow aspects or procedures. Their programmatic decisions normally arise from a collegial base, from deliberations that focus upon a school's entire academic program and that typically involve specific, conscious consultation with their peers—faculty and administration—and with their clients—students as well as faculty and the general public.

Concepts of Programmatic Responsibilities and Programmatic Leadership

This *decisive*—as distinct from the merely procedural—power to change direction, to reallocate resources, to alter a program, to create a new program, to focus on the entire library, to take risks—this gestalt I have termed *programmatic responsibility*. Precisely because a program is an exclusive locus of power and a fully academic matter, I further maintain that programmatic responsibilities cannot be delegated to nonacademic

staff. Only librarians can exercise programmatic responsibilities—including programmatic leadership, which is the duty to change or adapt the library's program and organization to fit new conditions—even to destabilize, to tear down, and from the remains reconstruct a completely new program. In higher education programmatic responsibilities emerge from the highest levels of academic decision making—from the office of the provost, dean, academic vice president, or similar officer. Correspondingly, a librarian's specific duties and responsibilities emerge from the library program which, in turn, emerges from a school's mission, goals, objectives, and curriculum. In fact, the library program is as much an academic affair as curriculum itself and responsibility for development of the former exactly parallels the faculty's exclusive responsibility for the latter.

Librarians cannot "not" be responsible for the library program any more than faculty can ignore responsibility for research, teaching, and curriculum.

In short, a librarian's programmatic responsibilities *inhere in the position*. Such responsibilities require a broad understanding of national and international library issues, continuous self-development, and a willingness to participate in governance, research, publication, and professional association affairs. Additionally, every librarian position is characterized by generic duties and responsibilities, of which attention to the library program is by far the most vital. Librarians cannot "not" be responsible for the library program any more than faculty can ignore responsibility for research, teaching, and curriculum. No matter how narrowly circumscribed their work, librarians cannot opt out of broad programmatic responsibilities, cannot claim "they're not in my job description." Ernest Ingles, chief librarian of the University of Alberta, has formulated an attractive co-

nundrum to articulate the nature of a librarian's duties and responsibilities. According to Ingles, "Everything is assigned and nothing is assigned," a formulation I call Ingles' paradox.¹⁴

Ingles' paradox cannot be applied to staff who perform classified work no matter how complex the procedures. Classified work is definitely assigned, and those who occupy classified slots are not free to work at will on responsibilities outside their job descriptions. Nonexempt staff cannot take on professional duties or programmatic responsibilities without appropriate compensation and status. However, if nonexempt staff are permitted consistently to perform exempt work, two choices could be invoked: either the employee's work responsibilities could be scaled back to the original job description or the work could be redefined and the incumbent's position reconstituted as exempt and paid accordingly, in conformity with established arbitration and judicial rulings. I have no problem with the latter if it is the will of the administration, the institution has the financial resources to cope, and the employee is of proven ability. Correspondingly, one might be forced to demote or reclassify librarians unwilling or unable to fulfill the comprehensive programmatic responsibilities that inhere in their exempt positions.

Inappropriateness of Task Lists as Position or Job Determinants

Tasks and responsibilities are two entirely different concepts. Discrete, assigned tasks are exactly that—no more, no less. Programmatic responsibilities are abstract entities of a generic character; relatively independent of changing technology, they comprehend the entire spectrum of an institution's mission and character. Thus, to distinguish the work of librarians and support staff it is best to abandon enumerated task lists. *Technology keeps changing tasks*. A task list is almost immediately out of date when issued and therefore is essentially irrelevant as a tool for distinguishing librarians from support staff. Additionally, when most staff have become knowl-

edge workers, the line between respective tasks can become very fuzzy. Finally, because the wide scope of a librarian's work comprises a gestalt, an enumeration of finite tasks is more hindrance than help in defining the librarian's role in higher education.

ACADEME AS A STRATIFIED SOCIETY

I now wish to return to that earlier point on stratification within academe, a matter that often invokes denial because we are reluctant to admit involvement with anything undemocratic. Yet the college and university are among the most undemocratic institutions in our society; inequality is conspicuous, rampant, and undisguised in academe, but some persist in denying it.¹⁵

An anecdote from my experience in the University of California illustrates the pervasive reluctance to accept stratification. When I took up my position as university librarian at the Santa Barbara campus, I found support staff attending meetings of the Senate Library Committee as if by right, an arrangement that if not sanctioned by the librarians, was certainly not questioned. Investigating university statutes to see who had the right to attend Senate committee meetings, I found universally that only faculty members were part of the process—except for the library committee, where the university librarian was the sole *ex officio* nonfaculty member. But no rank-and-file librarian—and certainly no support staff member—was entitled to participate in Senate library committee meetings, nor was anyone except faculty eligible for membership on any other Senate committee. There was absolutely no question about the uniqueness and exclusivity of the faculty's powers.

With faculty permission I arranged to have selected librarians invited in accordance with the agenda but ceased to invite support staff. Challenged by support staff in an open meeting, I cited the statutes of the university and, explaining that faculty were extremely jealous of their prerogatives, affirmed that they did not provide for nonacademic staff to

participate in their proceedings. One support staff member asked: "Don't you think that's an awfully elitist attitude?" I replied: "Absolutely!!! The University of California is an elitist institution!" This response was not received with enthusiasm. But it reflects the undeniable reality of elitism in the university community.

Elitism is part of what higher education is all about: the college and university experience bestows lifetime advantages upon a select group willing to sacrifice, work, study, and learn. The faculty/staff/student trichotomy is fundamental and remains highly durable. In parallel with this trichotomy, library support for academe has evolved into a layered structure with different categories of employees holding widely differing responsibilities. Management holds different expectations for each group, and there are differences in authority, responsibility, pay, and privilege. The academic library's mission—a maximum of information and service for all its clients—may be democratic but the system for achieving that mission is not. Yet our taste for democracy in every facet of life is very great, and it is comforting to deny any embodiment of hierarchy and stratification. Our readiness to accept elitism in competitive enterprise—sports, the arts, and entertainment—is an interesting contrast.

Elitism implies exclusivity and there is nothing shameful about an exclusive responsibility. All kinds of licensed professionals bear exclusive responsibilities. If we distribute programmatic responsibilities broadcast, we deny our professionalism—and that is tantamount to saying that anyone can do a librarian's work. *Merwine versus Mississippi State University* should have settled that claim.

To summarize this point: if my construct about exclusivity and programmatic responsibilities is not valid, then there is little or no difference between librarians and support staff. All knowledge workers would be equal. From this it follows straightaway that work that can be done by anyone does not require a span of levels, roles, and responsibilities. The parallel in other fields is immediate:

there would be no differences between M.D.'s and R.N.'s, attorneys and paralegals, and between civil engineers and anyone with a PC who knew how to use AutoCad software.

All human beings deserve respect. Neither the concept of *programmatic responsibilities* nor the exclusive locus of power idea means that we cannot receive or solicit input from support staff or that we should fail to respect them. Quite the contrary: to achieve the library's mission and goals effectively and economically, input is required from every staff level. Everyone certainly deserves to be respected and every employee merits opportunity for advancement.¹⁶

Nor does a staffing dichotomy mean that librarians are better people than support staff or more valuable to the library or that support staff lack capacity. I have said many times that libraries could function for quite a while without librarians but would collapse in an instant without support staff whose presence and dedication are absolutely essential. Everyone—including the janitor—helps run the library and every employee projects the library's role and value to the public. But different categories of employees have different, noninterchangeable responsibilities.

IMPACT OF VOGUE MANAGEMENT METHODS

Within the past decade or so a great many methods have been taken over from industry and commerce and become politically correct in business personnel management and in government. These concepts are having a definite impact on the academic library. The current inventory of politically correct terms includes concepts such as *teamwork*, *empowerment*, *total quality management (TQM)*, *statistical quality control*, *liberation management*, and the likely newest one, *Fourth Generation Management*.¹⁷ Three vogue concepts—flat organizations, teamwork, and empowerment—plus the influential work of W. Edwards Deming—are worth brief discussion.

Flat Organizations. Some say, "Flat organizations are best; we need to end

hierarchy." Unfortunately, the totally flat organization does not function effectively because nobody knows who's in charge and it is virtually impossible to achieve accountability. This concept, tried in the 1960s, has had no general success. Recently several major computer and software companies—Apple, AutoDesk, and Thinking Machines—have concluded that organizational flatness and loose management styles contribute to a lack of focus in marketing and indecision in major policy areas. One result is comparatively flat profits; all have adjusted their organizations accordingly.¹⁸ The challenge of excellence in organizational intercommunication is not met by the seemingly easy solution of flatness.

Unfortunately, the totally flat organization does not function effectively because nobody knows who's in charge and it is virtually impossible to achieve accountability.

Teamwork. In an organization as complex as the academic library it would be impossible to achieve anything if staff did not work together. Library staffs worked together effectively and harmoniously for a very long time before managers applied the *team* label to group activity. But merely calling all employees *associates* and redesignating work styles as *teamwork* are no guarantee of success.¹⁹

Peter Drucker distinguishes three different types of teams (that cannot be intermixed) and points out that selecting the correct type is essential to increasing the productivity of knowledge workers.²⁰ His first type is the baseball team—analogue to the factory production line. Here the players play on a team but not as a team—no player can deviate from his/her assigned responsibility. This scheme is clearly inappropriate to the academic library where (ideally) flexibility, interdependence, adaptability, and exchange of assignment are routine among both librarians and support

staff. Drucker's second team type is the soccer team, which he compares to the symphony orchestra and characterizes as a team having one boss whose word is law. The players follow a score or game plan, and endless rehearsal is required for effectiveness. Such a construct would be totally ineffective in academe where independence and autonomy are extremely powerful (making *rehearsal* a meaningless term), and where unforeseeable demands can easily derail any preconceived "game plan." Additionally, the *one-boss-whose-word-is-law* idea is not going to be accepted in any college or university. Drucker's third type is the doubles tennis team where players have enormous flexibility and are expected to "cover" for each other. The doubles tennis model, he states, has to be small—not more than seven to nine persons—and does not work well until its members have functioned together for a long time. This last type, which Drucker considers the strongest of all teams, can hardly be enlarged holus-bolus to involve all library employees. The management of an entity as complex as an academic library cannot be undertaken by a committee of the whole (except perhaps in small college libraries). Indeed, Drucker's preferred team structure sounds very much like the library director and his/her chief aides—the model long in place! But in reality, none of Drucker's models precisely embodies the academic library management team.

A team-centered approach is invaluable, indeed indispensable, in sports, manufacturing, sales, and the military. But except for mission-centered research—such as weapons development or space exploration—teamwork is an exceptional phenomenon in academe, especially in the humanities. Even in the sciences, faculty and researchers use team approaches with great reluctance because of concerns about rank, status, prestige, and priority in discovery and publication.²¹ One can find many examples to illustrate minimal teamwork in academe; the battle over credit for isolation of the AIDS virus is notable. Faculty who do use teams often staff them with

subordinates, like low-paid graduate students. Generally, faculty are not team players; as autonomous professionals they are quite rivalrous. Rivalry among librarians is also fairly common.

In the library, there is certainly important work that can be done by teams. The RECON projects of the past two decades are among the best examples; so is the current area of software training. But the vital programmatic responsibilities tend to be more individualized, tailored to the incumbent's education, talents, and professional responsibilities, and geared to serve other campus programs which, after all, compete for the same institutional dollars as does the library.²²

In short, I believe that in academe the team concept—especially the idea of the autonomous self-directed team—though seductive, is simply too facile:

The challenge in academe is not to build a "team" but to develop a style of cooperative independence uniting diverse interests into the achievement of common goals—without destroying or weakening opportunity for individual growth and development. This is a vastly more difficult challenge than team building in the corporate world.²³

Finding a truly innovative and durable team model for academic librarianship—a model that goes beyond Drucker's preferred type—remains an elusive goal.²⁴

One final comment on teams: their legality may be questionable. On December 17, 1992, the National Labor Relations Board ruled that work teams may be considered as company unions—especially if they deal with scheduling, work rotation, or pay-for-performance. Also, legitimate unions may view teams as diminishing or threatening their power.

Empowerment. Like the teaching and research faculty, librarians are already empowered. Their academic status has endowed them with programmatic responsibilities—the authority and the obligation to redirect, reconstruct, and reconstitute an institution's library service program. I have three comments on the general notion of empowerment:

- Not everyone can be equally empowered. (The janitor is normally not assigned to collection development.)
- For some librarians "empowerment" might just mean fulfilling the responsibilities they already hold—but may not be carrying out.
- Some people—including some librarians—do not want to be empowered, for it would mean they might actually have to make some choices and be held accountable for them.

A legitimate question is to what extent support staff can be empowered. What does empowerment really mean for those who do not and cannot have programmatic responsibilities? Empowerment cannot have the same meaning for all categories of employees. To suggest that it can is self-deception.

Donald Riggs, a vigorous proponent of empowerment, suggests that TQM (Total Quality Management) "empowers people by trusting all library staff to act responsibly and giving them proper authority."²⁵ Riggs' choice of words—"proper authority"—is noteworthy. However, I have problems with his suggestion that one should "trust everyone to act responsibly." If that could be done, the ACRL Personnel Administrators and Staff Development Officers of Large Research Libraries Discussion Group would not exist, nor would many similar groups. The work of library personnel officers would be confined to simple, bureaucratic tasks—paper pushing at best—and a staff of self-supervising employees would require no managers.

W. Edwards Deming's Management Views. The philosophy of statistical quality control promoted by W. Edwards Deming, one of the distinguished parents of Japan's productivity achievements, has exerted a preeminent though tardy influence in North America. One is reluctant to be negative when there is so much of value in his views: drive out fear; be a coach and colleague—not a judgmental critic; drive out adversarial confrontation by designing win-win strategies; pay is not a motivator; pride and joy are the best rewards; optimize the whole system. Are these

not the general principles of all good management?

But Deming's view that management should not come from the top is not a good fit to the academic world. Higher education is not the factory; both management and leadership have *got to come from the top*, from those who hold and exercise programmatic responsibilities, specifically administration, chief academic officers, and faculty. Within the library, the corresponding agents of programmatic evaluation and change are librarians, the chief librarian, and principal deputies.

What does empowerment really mean for those who do not and cannot have programmatic responsibilities?

Deming states that action without knowledge is useless, that "experience teaches nothing," because without theory there is no learning. This very valuable observation supports the necessity and value of graduate education for librarianship; it also supports the notion that professional staff and support staff exercise qualitatively different responsibilities.

In brief, I am very critical of all business management derivatives—they tend to be deterministic, highly reductive, and transient.²⁶ But I do not suggest that we cannot learn from business and industry or should not apply appropriate business techniques to managing academic libraries. The key is in the words *appropriate* and *proper*. If we adopt or adapt inappropriate techniques—or delegate our exclusive programmatic responsibilities to nonacademic staff—we risk reading ourselves out of existence, or at best marginalizing our profession.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Allocation of duties and responsibilities among knowledge workers involves weighty policy issues such as pay equity and the designation of exempt and non-exempt status—important issues beyond the scope of this paper. Although these policy questions sometimes have a

strong emotional content, how we feel matters very little. The legal consequences of these decisions are the domain of the chief librarian, the personnel officer, and the parent institution's administrators. There are many other issues germane to our central question, but they are also far beyond the range of this paper: motivation, leadership, cultural diversity, supervision, performance appraisal, advancement, staff and career development. We cannot, however, allow these additional important considerations to confound our thinking about the central issues: who librarians are, what they do, and where their programmatic duties and responsibilities originate. Nor can we ignore the fact that despite the transformation of most employees into "knowledge workers," the academic work environment is still firmly set up for duality, not for a "creeping continuity" where different responsibilities can slide unnoticeably from one category of employee to another.

To sum up, the following main points represent my conclusions about academic librarians and academic librarianship.

1. A librarian's work is cerebral and indeterminate, rarely being the application of some fixed formula or procedure. Each new client or new problem is a new intellectual challenge that is met with a fresh, inventive response—not by reference to some canonical "body of knowledge." A librarian's work cannot be disaggregated into the convenient series of tasks so beloved of work analysts. A librarian's work is far closer to the faculty's teaching and research than to anything subject to industrial work analysis.²⁷ Like other knowledge professionals—surgeons, lawyers, economists, scientists, professors—librarians are intimately involved with the interactive dynamics and unpredictable outcomes of living systems, for example, other people and society as a whole.
2. Because our realm is the life of the mind, we need to focus primarily upon librarianship's mental and

intellectual content, to understand and communicate that our intellectual and teaching work is neither exportable nor delegatable. (Nor is it assignable to a software package.) The kind of work that can be exported to low-wage countries or transferred downward in a work hierarchy is almost always procedural, manual work. As such work is removed from librarians, new intellectual challenges rise to fill the void.

A librarian is not hired to "do a job" but to be and become a certain kind of person—ideally a partner with faculty and student in both the teaching and research aspects of higher education.

To focus this second point to the utmost: academic librarianship involves intangible mental work that must be done by educated people who hold unique responsibilities for program, leadership, and teaching and who, like faculty, exercise an exclusive locus of power. Librarians add to their work ethical and nonmonetary values not obtainable elsewhere. A librarian is not hired to "do a job" but to be and become a certain kind of person—ideally a partner with faculty and student in both the teaching and research aspects of higher education. Willis Hubbard says it neatly:

... academic librarians are not in the business of librarianship, but of teaching. If we do not find ways to form new alliances with faculty, we run the serious risk of becoming marginalized professionally and economically ...²⁸

W. Bede Mitchell and Bruce Morton, in a recent *C&RL* paper, have succinctly stated about the professoriate what is precisely true about academic librarianship: "It is a commitment to a transcendent academic culture, to an intellectual community, and to the pursuit of inquiry."²⁹

3. We must rid ourselves of self-imposed modesty. We must make

ourselves the visible "information navigators." We must convince the funders that real, live, well-paid librarians are indispensable to the organization. Let us proudly affirm that we are the information experts, the institution's key knowledge workers.

4. Only librarians can redesign, reconstruct, and redirect library programs. Only librarians can determine decisively how to design and spend the library budget. In my opinion, these two sentences say it all and everything else about the allocation of work to the several categories of knowledge employees follows from this. This is no magic bullet, but simply a firm statement of principle.
5. Academic librarianship is an academic service business—not a bibliographic factory. Because we deal with the entire universe, our work tends to be messy, our procedures rarely algorithmic. Because we cater to human creativity, demand is variable and unpredictable, our work difficult or impossible to schedule systematically. Unlike wheat or sand, our products and services are not fungible. Our products and services are invariably unique to our clients. Clients do not come back to us for "more" information as customers go to the supermarket for more cereal or toothpaste. This is the main reason we should stop looking to the commercial world for some trendy formula to solve all our personnel management and organizational problems. We must look within our own unique environment for solutions that fit the very peculiar body academic.

There is no evidence that the fundamentally hierarchical structure of higher education is soon going to be overthrown and transformed into some egalitarian organism. Consequently, there can be no mandate to coalesce the academic library staff into a single, undifferenti-

ated class. The personnel aspects of contemporary academic librarianship continue to follow a long tradition of duality: a staff of librarians and other specialists plus support staff. Furthermore, it is clear that the growing complexity of the world of information demands more, not fewer, experts.

Yet as technology uplifts all levels of employees, turning more and more of them into information workers—symbol manipulators rather than movers of physical objects—one must ask whether traditional personnel arrangements can or should survive. I have already suggested that the paradigm of employment duality in academic libraries might one day be viewed as an outmoded "inheritance from an industrial society . . . no longer . . . appropriate to an information society," and that "in the next century technology may drive a radical restructuring of work in the information field . . ."^{30,31} Maureen Sullivan has suggested that some altogether new construct may develop from the confluence of technical and social factors in library work—perhaps the emergence of two parallel career streams: librarians on the academic/programmatic side and, on the support side, information specialists.³² However, at this time the mechanism for advancing such a change is not clear, nor is it yet certain that such a change is even desirable. We need to watch closely how academe itself responds to technological imperatives, financial constraints, and demographic change. Will higher education remain the primary socializing experience for the nation's future scholars and leaders—as it has for centuries—or will it devolve into a completely different entity? Whatever higher education becomes, librarianship, as a support instrument, is likely to reflect the parent institution's structure.

Despite very rapid, technology-driven change, I conclude that for the foreseeable future, higher education will continue to require a dedicated cadre of special appointees—librarians—expressly charged to design and manage information systems for faculty,

students, and other researchers. To achieve that result, academic librarians must continue to hold, enhance, and vigorously exercise their programmatic responsibilities while maintaining an exclusive locus of power in parallel with faculty.

In all eras and in all societies information has always been the most powerful and most fundamental social and technical resource, but only now is this fact being universally recognized. Only now has technology for the commercial exploitation of information been developed to the point where it can compete with librarianship. It is in this context

that we must redefine and redesign academic librarianship and rethink the entire spectrum of staffing and appropriate personnel utilization. Change in the structure of academic librarianship should be an outcome of librarians' programmatic leadership and not something that occurs by default or through the courts. In short, academic librarianship urgently needs a completely new manifesto. We must devise one quickly—before our role is preempted. If we cannot forge our own destiny in the information arena, some other force will do it. Neither we nor our clients may care for the result.

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10. Much of the following is based upon arguments developed in detail in my book, *Academic Librarianship in a Transformational Age: Program, Politics, and Personnel* (Boston: G. K. Hall, 1990).
11. *Ibid.*, 167.
12. My terms *position* and *job* are here defined for the sake of a general argument; they may not be similarly defined by career personnel specialists who must often work within the context of legislative constraint or established usage.
13. Veaner, *Academic Librarianship*, 70–71. All employees hold responsibilities, of course, but those held by librarians are broad and generic, not discrete or precisely designated.
14. Ernest Ingles, personal communication.
15. An exceptionally lucid picture of the inequalities in academe is in Henry Rosovsky's *The University: An Owner's Manual* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1990).
16. Opportunity for advancement is not necessarily within the library, however, as indefinite upward mobility in any organization is an obvious impossibility.
17. These vogue terms have a very high mortality rate; one can dimly recall PPBS (Program Planning & Budgeting System), ZBB (Zero Based Budgeting), QC (Quality Circles), etc.
18. For the story on Thinking Machines, see Glenn Rifkin's "Computer Maker Fills a Top Post" in *New York Times*, Aug. 30, 1993, Section C, 1, 3.
19. See Aimee L. Stern's critical analysis of the failures and difficulties of team management in industry in *New York Times*, July 18, 1993, Section 3, 5.
20. Peter F. Drucker, *Post-Capitalist Society* (New York: HarperBusiness, 1993), 83–90.

21. Large recent losses in U.S. federal support for science may change this old pattern and force greater cooperation among researchers.
22. Veaner, *Academic Librarianship*, 197-203.
23. *Ibid.*, 101.
24. David A. Baldwin and Robert L. Migneault, in their forthcoming work, *Humanistic Management by Teamwork: An Organizational and Administrative Alternative for Academic Libraries* (Englewood, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, 1994), propose a hybrid of hierarchy and teamstyle organization to resolve some of the problems of traditional styles.
25. Donald E. Riggs, "TQM: Quality Improvement in New Clothes," *College & Research Libraries* 53 (Nov. 1992): 481-83.
26. Even industry is tiring of trendy management, productivity, and compensation "solutions" promised by techniques variously named *reengineering*, *benchmarking*, *worker empowerment*, *team management*, *broadbanding*, *skill-based pay*, and *total quality management*. The new fashions appear to be comparatively short-lived, are often abandoned, or require modification and, in some cases, even expensive antidotes. See "Many Companies Try Management Fads, Only to See Them Flop," *Wall Street Journal*, July 6, 1993, A1.
27. The words *task* and *job* cannot accurately describe the largely invisible mental and cognitive work that is the librarian's domain. It would be a blessing if we could get rid of both task and job to characterize the work of librarians, though it is evident that within the bureaucracy of state-supported institutions this would be very difficult, perhaps impossible.
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IN FORTHCOMING ISSUES OF COLLEGE & RESEARCH LIBRARIES

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Charles A. Schwartz

The Fall of the Bibliographic Wall: Libraries and Archives in Unified Germany

Sem C. Sutter

The end of the Cold War and the unification of Germany have inaugurated a new era in German library and archival history. Divided collections are being reunited, bodies of material considered lost after World War II are resurfacing in Eastern Europe as well as in Germany, and some archives heretofore closed are opening for the first time. Besides its inherent historical and political interest, the situation poses special challenges for the European administrators of the collections, as well as to American librarians assisting researchers who need to know about new resources. This article places recent developments in their historical context and summarizes information about collections whose status is likely to continue changing in the near term.



Germany, like no other country, came to epitomize the postwar division of Europe: severed into two states allied with the opposing political blocs, its largest city and erstwhile capital partitioned and eventually physically separated by the Wall that became the symbol of the Cold War. Germany as a land of books and readers experienced this rupture as well with the division of the national library, the national bibliography, the librarians' associations, several major publishing firms, and the national book fair. Therefore, as the Cold War ends, it is especially appropriate to look at German book and archival collections after the fall of the bibliographic wall. This article is a preliminary report based on early information that necessarily focuses on the initial developments and the most spectacular examples.

ARCHIVAL AND MANUSCRIPT COLLECTIONS

Pre-World War II Archives

The period since World War II has been difficult for researchers who wanted to consult German archival and manuscript collections. The dispersion and destruction of collections during the war, followed by the political division of Germany, often made it difficult to determine with certainty whether documents had survived and where they were housed, to say nothing of the potential difficulties of gaining scholarly access to them. While the passage of years saw the solution of a few mysteries and the easing of some restrictions, there was still a frustrating number of both by 1989. With the events of the last five years, however, some dispersed collections have begun to be reunited, restricted archives have become more accessible, and some manuscripts for-

merly assumed destroyed have reappeared. The five collections described below offer some sense of the range of developments under way.

Preussisches Geheimes Staatsarchiv. The process of reuniting the Prussian State Archives (Geheimes Staatsarchiv) in their prewar location in the Dahlem section of Berlin began in April 1993 with the return of the first truckload of material from Merseburg in Saxony-Anhalt. These voluminous archives include Prussian administrative records, archives of the houses of Brandenburg-Prussia and Hohenzollern, and personal papers of prominent historical figures. Among them are some of the most important records of the Weimar period, although some documents seem to have disappeared and they may never resurface.

In 1943 German archivists moved the bulk of this collection to Saxony-Anhalt for safekeeping in salt and potassium mines, where Soviet occupying forces later confiscated it. Eventually the Soviets turned the material over to the government of Saxony-Anhalt and after 1950 the Interior Ministry of the German Democratic Republic (GDR) administered it in Merseburg as a division of the Zentrales Staatsarchiv. The 25,000 linear meters of material form a veritable archival mountain, dwarfing the 3,800 meters that remained in West Berlin, administered as the Geheimes Staatsarchiv Preussischer Kulturbesitz after the war. Archive officials estimate that it will require some one hundred truckloads to transport the material to Berlin over the course of a year. A converted granary will serve as an interim storage facility for several years, but the material will be available to researchers.¹

Archives of the Deutsche Bank. The pre-1945 archives of the Deutsche Bank are an example of a private collection that has opened to researchers. The records of the bank are among the more important documents of German business history and, for the period of the Third Reich, among the most controversial. In May 1945 Soviet authorities entered the Deutsche Bank in Berlin and removed over 12,000 volumes of records from its

vault. Eventually this material entered the Central States Archives (Zentrales Staatsarchiv) in Potsdam which contained primarily records of the old Reichsarchiv that were in Soviet-occupied territory at the war's end. (The rest of this Reichsarchiv material forms a part of the Federal Archives [Bundesarchiv] in Koblenz.) Since unification the archive in Potsdam has transferred the 12,000 volumes of records to the Deutsche Bank's own archive in Frankfurt while retaining a complete microfilm copy. Both the originals in Frankfurt and the microfilm in Potsdam are now accessible to researchers and typically five or six historians are using them at any given time.²

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Walther Rathenau Papers. An example of a manuscript collection believed lost in the 1930s and 1940s that has resurfaced since 1989 is the *Nachlass* (papers) of Walther Rathenau (1867–1922). Rathenau was the industrialist, intellectual, and statesman who helped put the German economy on a war footing during World War I and who, as minister of reconstruction and foreign minister after the war, negotiated the Treaty of Rapallo with the Soviet Union, breaking Germany's diplomatic isolation.

After Rathenau's assassination by right-wing extremists in 1922, his library and papers were maintained by the Rathenau Foundation in his former house in Berlin-Grunewald. When the Nazis came to power, the foundation dissolved and Rathenau's sister took the papers to Bavaria. When she fled Germany in 1939, the Gestapo confiscated twelve boxes of material. The editor of the 1985 English translation of Rathenau's notes and diaries based his edition on a condensed version published in 1930, noting that a complete edition would have been possible only if

Rathenau's papers apparently had not been destroyed at the end of the war. He described in some detail his futile efforts to trace the papers, including visits to the Central State Archives of the GDR in Potsdam, the State Archive in Wrocław, and the Warsaw Committee for Studies of Hitler's Crimes in Poland.³

Often it is only by word of mouth that one learns where lesser-known collections are housed and who is in charge of them.

In 1992, however, Rathenau scholar Wolfgang Michalka of Freiburg succeeded in discovering the papers miraculously complete and undamaged, some 70,000 pages in all, in the Central State Archive in Moscow where they had been inaccessible, even to Soviet researchers. Michalka learned that the papers had been sent to a castle near Breslau (now Wrocław) for safekeeping, where the Soviet army captured them in September 1945. Highlights of the Rathenau papers were exhibited in January 1993 in the Reichspräsident-Friedrich-Ebert-Gedenkstätte in Heidelberg. Their discovery adds exciting new impetus to work on the complete edition of Rathenau's works, a project already under way.⁴

It is worth noting here that, while there are published modern catalogs of personal papers in Germany, former East Germany is relatively underrepresented in them and for some time to come researchers will be dependent on an oral tradition of scholarship.⁵ Often it is only by word of mouth that one learns where lesser-known collections are housed and who is in charge of them.⁶ For some time to come librarians may need to be prepared to help researchers look extensively and imaginatively for the locations of the manuscript sources they need.

Valuable documentation of music and the arts during the Weimar Republic has also been resurfacing in the East. For example, the archives of the Allgemeiner

Deutscher Musikverein have been unearthed in Weimar, and scattered materials pertaining to the *Novembergruppe* of artists and musicians and to the publications *Anbruch* and *Melos* are available in various libraries.⁷

Archives created in the GDR

Archives developed during the forty year history of the German Democratic Republic currently are opening to researchers who had no access to them before. Perhaps the most intriguing caches of material are two sizable media repositories.

Radio and Television Archives. At a press conference in January 1993 archivists from the Deutsches Rundfunkarchiv (Frankfurt) announced the upcoming opening of the archives of East German radio and television, to be housed in the library of the former GDR television network in Berlin-Adlershof. The historical and cultural value of material being made available, as well as its sheer volume, is phenomenal: 100,000 films; nearly 300,000 still photos; nearly 500,000 recordings of popular and classical music (including some 30,000 shellac discs from the Reichsrundfunk before 1945); 100,000 spoken recordings (including 23,000 radio plays); 2,500 linear meters of scripts and administrative archives. The list goes on and includes considerable material obtained through program exchanges with other socialist countries.

The German broadcasters' association (ARD, or Arbeitsgemeinschaft der öffentlich-rechtlichen Rundfunkanstalten der Bundesrepublik Deutschland), which sponsors the central radio archive in Frankfurt, has also underwritten the processing costs for this collection. Sorting and cataloging is about half complete and entries for the materials in Berlin are being added to a database at the Frankfurt archive. Catalogs of the material will eventually be published, but not until after processing is complete, perhaps at the end of 1994. The first cooperative project between the two archives is already under way—a union catalog of media material related

to the persecution of Jews in Frankfurt and Berlin up to 1945.⁸

Film Archives. The movies produced by DEFA, the monopoly film company of the GDR, represent another important media archive becoming available for use. In March 1993 the University of Oldenburg Library paid 200,000 Marks for the 700 films in the archives of the DEFA studios in Potsdam. They include feature films, documentaries, and children's productions and represent about two-thirds of all films made in the GDR. The Library plans to recatalog the collection and make it available for research by historians, film scholars, and political scientists. Meanwhile, the only complete file of East German films, that of the state film archive, has been taken over by the Federal Archives in Koblenz.⁹

LIBRARY COLLECTIONS

Despite their complicated history and their still uncertain future, the story of German archives during the war seems almost simple when compared with the fate of library collections.

A wise bibliophile, lamenting the ordeals of books caught up in the vagaries of war, wrote:

Wars being without the control of reason make a wild assault on everything they come across and, lacking the check of reason, they push on without discretion or distinction to destroy the vessels of reason. . . . For by wars [books] are scattered into foreign lands, are mutilated, wounded, and shamefully disfigured, are buried under the earth and overwhelmed in the sea, are devoured by the flames and destroyed by every kind of death.¹⁰

We might well imagine that the writer was a Polish scholar, a Russian librarian, or a Czech poet in the middle of the twentieth century. But, in fact, the author was Richard de Bury, writing in 1345 and quoted six hundred years later by the director of the University of Hamburg Library in his opening address to the first conference of librarians in the British Occupation Zone.¹¹ Herrmann Tiemann's reference was poignantly apt, for the bibliographic depredations of

World War II in Eastern and Central Europe were comparable in spirit to the destruction of the library of Alexandria, while vastly exceeding it in scale.

War-time Conditions

Georg Leyh described German library buildings in 1945 as "ein riesiges Trümmerfeld," a vast expanse of rubble, but the damage to buildings and the books and catalogs in them is only a part of the story. As early as September of 1939 many libraries were moving their most precious books and manuscripts to their basements for greater security, but experience soon demonstrated that this was inadequate protection. By the fall of 1942 an unprecedented movement of books had begun as libraries evacuated millions of volumes throughout Germany in suitcases and packing crates, by truck, train, and coal barge. Books found temporary refuge in isolated castles and manors, in cloisters and churches, and especially in the depths of salt and potassium mines. The Deutsche Bücherei in Leipzig distributed 1.6 million volumes among ten locations, the Bayerische Staatsbibliothek more than a million in twenty-eight sites. At first books were carefully packed in tight containers and listed, but as conditions became increasingly frantic, librarians sometimes piled them up without any protection. It is hardly surprising that many books disappeared or were damaged in transit, that others fell prey to water and vermin while in storage, and that still others were plundered by individuals or by armies or occupying forces. Georg Leyh estimated total losses from German research libraries at 25 million volumes—one-third of their 1939 holdings.¹²

1945–1989. In the years of postwar recovery, the majority of evacuated volumes found their way back to their libraries of origin or, as the Cold War set in, to two successor institutions. But many collections of books and manuscripts simply had vanished at the end of the war. Some eventually resurfaced in Poland and the Soviet Union, and a few of these were eventually returned to libraries in the GDR. For example, the

autograph manuscript of Mozart's opera, *Die Zauberflöte*, and other valuable music manuscripts evacuated from the Preussische Staatsbibliothek were returned to the Deutsche Staatsbibliothek in East Berlin on the occasion of a Polish state visit in 1977.¹³ For the most part, however, pointed and repeated queries, especially from East German librarians to their Soviet counterparts and the Soviet government, fell on deaf ears.

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1989–1994. The events of 1989 and following have led to remarkable new developments in this area as well. Collections of library materials long given up as lost have been resurfacing. Through the combination of changed circumstances, institutions and governments in Western and Eastern Europe have found it possible and desirable to begin talking about returning materials to their libraries of origin. In a few cases collections have already been transferred, but it will require years of international cooperation to sort out many of the complex situations coming to light. Several examples will indicate the kinds of remarkable discoveries under way, some of the tangled issues surrounding them, and possible approaches to their resolution.

In the last several years the popular press understandably has devoted considerable attention to spectacular discoveries of caches of art—prints and drawings from Bremen and East Asian art from Berlin in the storerooms of the Hermitage, the treasures of King Priam of Troy hidden in the Pushkin Museum—and rumors of a German location for the fabulous Amber Chamber plundered from St. Petersburg.

Extraordinary discoveries of books and manuscripts also have occurred

during the same period. For example, in 1942–43 the Staats- und Universitätsbibliothek Hamburg dispatched some 1,500 musical manuscripts and first editions of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries to a mine in Saxony for safekeeping. The collection included unique copies of operas and *Singspiele* composed for the Hamburg Opera. At the end of the war they disappeared, and as time passed they were considered destroyed or lost forever. In 1990 a German musicologist discovered them by chance in St. Petersburg, stored in the Russian Institute of Art Studies. Although stamped by Soviet military officials in 1945, they had never been processed. After negotiations between city governments (Hamburg and St. Petersburg happen to be partner cities), the collection was returned to Hamburg in exchange for a gift of 150,000 Marks.¹⁴

Russian National Library

Unfortunately, not all of the discoveries to date have enjoyed such swift resolution. According to published reports, the Russian National Library (formerly Saltykov-Schedrin Public Library) in St. Petersburg holds an estimated 340,000 German books brought there by Soviet troops at the end of the war from storage sites where libraries in Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Leipzig, and Magdeburg had placed them for safekeeping. Deputy Director Elena Nebogatikova reports that she was the first member of the library's staff to pay any attention to the books since their arrival in 1946–47. In December 1991 she had the disorganized collections moved from large store rooms in the library's closed stacks to a former bookstore building in the city where a team of catalogers began taking inventory. The books seem to run the gamut from incunabula and sixteenth-century imprints to scholarly monographs and serials of the 1930s. Ms. Nebogatikova sees the inventory as a first step toward deciding the books' future, but she is skeptical about the prospect of their return to Germany, pointing out that the severe cultural losses that German troops inflicted on the Soviet

Union demand an exchange of equal value. She also notes that she has received offers from German book dealers to purchase the books.¹⁵

This is not an isolated situation. In 1992 a staff member of the Russian Ministry of Culture told a reporter for *Der Spiegel* that so-called trophy literature from Germany was stored in over fifty locations, some as far east as Tomsk. The reporter visited the Tomsk University Library where the director displayed several thousand volumes from Magdeburg, Bremen, and Berlin, lamenting that no one there could read the Gothic script. He said that a rare book dealer from Berlin had offered to buy some of the eighteenth-century science and topography titles, but unfortunately he had not heard from the gentleman again.¹⁶

Given the strong feelings about the Second World War as well as the economic circumstances of libraries in the former Soviet Union, it is perfectly understandable why librarians might consider selling books that are useless to the vast majority of their readers.

Is the antiquarian market the most likely venue by which such books are likely to return to Germany? Given the strong feelings about the Second World War as well as the economic circumstances of libraries in the former Soviet Union, it is perfectly understandable why librarians might consider selling books that are useless to the vast majority of their readers. But in the German-Soviet treaty signed in 1990 both nations agreed "that lost or unlawfully transferred art treasures which are located in their territory will be returned to their owners or their successors."¹⁷ How all of the parties involved can work through this complex set of problems in practical terms remains to be seen. There is a broad range of opinions among librarians, and a lively discussion is under way among them about the wisest and most equitable course to pursue.

The Church at Uzkoye

Much of this dialogue revolves around the most spectacular discovery of books to date, a cache in the Church of St. Anne at Uzkoye just outside Moscow, variously estimated to contain hundreds of thousands, or "over a million," or even as many as 1.5 million volumes.¹⁸ Journalist Evgeny Kuzmin first publicized the discovery in an article in *Literaturnaya Gazeta* in the fall of 1990. He described German books intermingled with Russian volumes withdrawn from circulation under Stalin and stacked from floor to ceiling, all jammed in so tightly that those at the bottom had crumbled. He called it "a kind of Katyn massacre, except that dumped into an unknown common grave are not people, but books."¹⁹

In the months that followed Kuzmin's call for action, a round table of librarians convened at the National State Library of Foreign Literature in Moscow to discuss the "trophy literature" in the hope of reaching a consensus and assisting the government in resolving the problem. A wide range of experiences and opinions emerged that I can only summarize here briefly.²⁰

The former head of the manuscripts division of the Russian State Library (formerly the Lenin Library), S. V. Zhitomirskaiâ, described vividly the emotions she and her colleagues felt in 1946 as they surveyed the captured books and manuscripts to choose materials for their library. There was a feeling of euphoria and triumph that astonishes her today. But as they began working concretely with manuscripts from Berlin, Dresden, Gdansk, and the Polish National Library they found themselves increasingly uneasy about the appropriateness, indeed the morality, of holding medieval codices, seventeenth-century archival records, and the personal papers of great German cultural figures—Fichte, Chamisso, and others. "It's as if the manuscripts of Tolstoy or Dostoyevsky lay in Berlin!" she exclaimed. Their misgivings grew as queries began to come from libraries in

the GDR, a fellow socialist country. But no one even asked about the ethical qualms of librarians—officials at the highest levels decreed that the holdings be kept secret and librarians swallowed their reservations.

Eventually, beginning in 1957, most of the manuscripts at the Lenin Library were restored to the GDR and to Poland, but a great many books remain. Ms. Zhitomirskaiâ and other round table participants pointed out that many of these books have been integrated into their libraries' collections and ferreting them all out today would be difficult, if not impossible. Why not, she suggested, ask German librarians to prepare lists of the missing books that they actually still want back? Once desiderata lists are in hand, let us make every effort to find these books and return them.

The Germans promised to pursue research in the West about the whereabouts of books removed from the Soviet Union during the war.

While some librarians at the round table advocated returning all books to the libraries of origin without delay, others argued that at this late date the question of return or nonreturn is irrelevant. Instead, librarians in the former Soviet Union as well as in Germany should concentrate on making holdings known and truly accessible to researchers across borders. This would strengthen bonds of international scholarly cooperation. Between these two ends of the spectrum lay several other opinions: (1) let us return all of the trophy literature without delay and without condition, but it is reasonable for the Germans as a fitting gesture of goodwill to supply our major libraries with their new publications for several decades; (2) the books should return to their home, whether by exchange or sale, realizing that for some of the old and rare books an equivalent trade may not be possible; (3) the many warehoused books that have never been processed certainly should be returned,

but perhaps for those that were cataloged over the years the only practical course is to assure that they are accessible to researchers of all nations.

Although the librarians did not achieve unity of opinion, they were able to agree on several practical measures. They recommended formation of a commission of knowledgeable librarians, scholars, lawyers, and economists to study the problem in greater detail. In order to support the work of this commission, they formulated a questionnaire for distribution to all libraries, soliciting concrete data about their holdings of captured books as well as about their own wartime losses.

NEGOTIATIONS

Meanwhile, negotiations have begun on several fronts in the spirit of the 1990 "Treaty on Good-Neighborliness, Partnership, and Co-operation." In December 1992 a delegation of German librarians and public officials met with forty of their counterparts in Moscow just before Chancellor Kohl's state visit. Evgeny Kuzmin, now an official responsible for library affairs in the Russian Ministry of Culture, showed the group documents recently uncovered in archives of the Defense Ministry and the Communist Party Central Committee that detail as never before the removal of books and art objects from Germany in 1945 and their dispersal. Despite differences of opinion, participants in the discussions seemed to realize that the historical complexities dictate that there can be no comprehensive resolution for all of the cultural properties displaced during the war, that insistence on narrow legal definitions is unlikely to be productive, and that all parties will need to be sensitive to one another's special concerns and circumstances.

The discussions seem to have generated real progress, indicating some of the elements that may make possible eventual resolution of some problems. Both sides agreed to make information freely available to one another's experts and to deter commercial trade in these books. The Germans promised to pursue

research in the West about the whereabouts of books removed from the Soviet Union during the war. Particularly encouraging is the fact that at least three pilot projects between individual institutions began in 1993. In exchange for returning books to Germany, the pilot libraries will be receiving copies of the books, new German books and serial subscriptions, assistance equipping reading rooms, or technical aid for preservation programs.²¹ The degree of success of these first endeavors will surely affect future action.

CONCLUSIONS

Clearly, major changes are under way in German libraries and archives since unification. Dispersed collections have begun to be reunited, some restricted

archives have become more accessible, and some resources that were assumed to have been destroyed have resurfaced. In some instances the change has been swift and it will take time until it is well documented. Other situations are so complicated that they will require years to sort out. Under these circumstances, librarians and researchers on both sides of the Atlantic will need to depend upon word of mouth and upon one another to locate resources. Sources for this information may include news reports in the German national press (*Die Zeit* and *Der Spiegel*, for example) and in NEXIS, articles and announcements in scholarly journals and the German library press, mention in electronic discussion groups, or information in the rapidly developing Gopher sites in Germany.

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Nota Bene

Jay Martin Poole, a member of the Editorial Board, director of the Fogelson Library at the College of Santa Fe, and a former editor of *CHOICE* magazine, died suddenly on July 21, 1994. His many contributions to librarianship and to the production of *College & Research Libraries* will be profoundly missed. The talents he developed in others endure.

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Selected Reference Books of 1993-1994

Eileen McIlvaine



his article follows the pattern set by the semiannual series initiated by the late Constance M. Winchell more than forty years ago and continued by Eugene Sheehy. Because the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and general works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well-balanced or comprehensive. A brief roundup of new editions of standard works is provided at the end of the articles. Code numbers (such as AD540 and 1CJ331) have been used to refer to titles in the *Guide to Reference Books* (10th ed., Chicago: ALA, 1986) and the *Supplement . . . Covering Materials from 1985-1990* (Chicago: 1992).

DICTIONARIES

Lewis, Ivor. *Sahibs, Nabobs, and Boxwallahs: A Dictionary of the Words of Anglo-India*. Bombay and New York: Oxford Univ. Pr., 1991. 266p. Rs395 (ISBN 0-19-562582-X). LC 91-900834.

In the latter half of the nineteenth century two Englishmen, Henry Yule and A. C. Burnell, who had served the government of India, collaborated to produce a masterpiece of scholarship entitled *Hobson-Jobson: A Glossary of Colloquial Anglo-Indian Words and Phrases, and of Kindred Terms, Etymological, Historical, Geographical and Discursive* (1903. AD128).

The present work attempts to fill "certain lacunae in *Hobson-Jobson* in order to achieve a better balance between the words of the common sort and those in the learned registers of theology, indology,

philosophy and the like"—Pref. Many of the newly added words were culled from pages of historical dictionaries, especially *The Oxford English Dictionary* and its predecessor *The New English Dictionary*, which were, for the most part, compiled after the publication of *Hobson-Jobson*.

Sahibs, Nabobs and Boxwallahs (Anglo-Indian words signifying roughly, lords, government deputies, and businessmen respectively) contains significantly fewer words, has less wordy, and consequently less exhaustive, definitions and etymological comments, and only cites references, not actual quotations, illustrating word usage. Its virtue lies in the fact that in spite of its conciseness, it is comprehensive and scholarly. Moreover it includes many common words, some of which originated in the twentieth century, and could not have been included in *Hobson-Jobson*.—O.d.C.

DATABASES

Bazy Dannykh Rossii: Katalog 2,500 Baz Dannykh po vsem Oblastiam deiatel'nosti. [Russian Databases: A Catalog of 2,500 Databases in all Areas of Activity] Moskva: NTTs "Informregistr," 1993. Various pagings.

Bazy Dannykh Rossii is a publication of the Committee on Computerized Information of the Russian Republic, which acts as a clearinghouse for information on publicly available computerized databases. Its research center, "Informregistr," maintains a database of descriptive entries—now numbering some 10,000—from which the entries in this publication are drawn. Though not easy to

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decipher (the technical jargon and acronyms presented some difficulty to this non-Russian), this Russian-language database directory nevertheless gives some insight into the burgeoning information industry in Russia. Focusing on Russian databases (the two previous editions—1990 and 1991—were broader in scope), this edition lists 2,500 entries and features several indexes.

The entries appear according to a classified subject arrangement that is roughly outlined in the table of contents. In addition each entry bears a numeric subject code from a separately published technical information thesaurus, the *Gosudarstvennoi rubrikator nauchnotekhnicheskoi informatsii* (4th ed. Moscow: VINITI, 1992). Constructed on the basis of information submitted by the database producers, the entries indicate the name of the database, give a brief description of the contents, mention the type of documents, the language, and the dates covered, and give technical information regarding computer requirements.

Bazy Danykh Rossii attempts to be comprehensive. Both governmental and private database producers' products are listed, all regions of the country are represented, all types of databases—bibliographic, indexing and abstracting, numerical, full-text—are included, and, although business and scientific databases predominate, social science and humanities databases can also be found.

There is an alphabetical subject index and an index of database producers giving address, telephone number, and their respective database products. However, there is no index to the databases by name.—O.d.C.

RELIGION

Caldwell, Sandra M., and Ronald J. Caldwell. *The History of the Episcopal Church in America, 1607–1991: A Bibliography*. Religious Information Systems, 15. New York: Garland, 1993. 528p. \$82 (ISBN 0-8153-0936-8). LC 92-45272.

This bibliography of secondary works lists some 3,800 books, articles, and dissertations on the history of the Episcopal

Church in America. General sections of reference works, general histories, period histories, topical works, and biographies are further subdivided by subject. The largest section, and probably the most useful, lists 1,600 local histories by state and town, including the histories and guides to archives of many individual churches. The topical sections, addressing African Americans, women, music, Anglo-Catholicism, architecture, education, etc., are very useful, although the section on education does not seem to have a clear focus. It lists histories of a few of the schools and colleges that were founded by the Episcopal Church, but omits many others. The topical arrangement with an author index works fairly well, though interesting studies of evangelicalism, marriage, and Native Americans are buried in the "miscellaneous" section, where the absence of a subject index is most keenly felt. Despite these limitations, there is no other comparable bibliography on the history of the Episcopal Church in America, making this a valuable reference work for American and church history.—S.S.

LITERATURE

Weekes, Ann Owens. *Unveiling Treasures: The Attic Guide to the Published Works of Irish Women Literary Writers*. Dublin: Attic Pr., 1993. 368p. £28.99, \$47 (ISBN 1-85594-0728).

Unveiling Treasures includes nearly 250 Irish women writers of drama, fiction, and poetry, ranging from Mary Davys (1674–1732) to such contemporary writers as Nuala Ni Dhomhnaill (born 1955). In each entry a biographical profile and discussion of the work, often quoting the author, is followed by a list of writings. The compiler's aim has been "to collect rather than evaluate; thus it is inclusive with respect to writers' work and to details of nationality"—*Introd.* Many of the entries for contemporary writers are based on personal communication or taken from their books and consequently do not provide many biographical facts, other than year of birth, place of birth, general education, and current domicile. Occasionally the en-

tries will note that the author is married or has children, but names of husbands or children seem to have been excluded on principle (the entry for Lady Wilde never mentions her son Oscar Wilde). Writers living anywhere in Ireland are included, together with many Irish authors living elsewhere. The entries are generally longer than those found in *A Biographical Dictionary of Irish Writers* (Suppl. 1 BD271) and include far more women writers, as well as more complete lists of works.—S.S.

MUSIC

Encyclopedia of Recorded Sound in the United States. Guy A. Marco, editor; Frank Andrews, contributing editor. Garland Reference Library of the Humanities, 936. New York and London: Garland, 1993. 910p. \$125 (ISBN 0-7190-3492-2). LC 93-18166.

Since 1877, when Thomas Edison invented the tinfoil phonograph and inaugurated the recording of sound, the recording of music and nonmusical sounds has become a permanent fixture in our lives. This encyclopedia provides a compendium of information on the first one hundred years of this activity. The approximately three thousand entries have been written primarily by Guy Marco. Also included are another three dozen signed articles whose contributors are identified, with their articles, at the beginning of the volume.

The arrangement of the entries is alphabetic. All headings, with cross-references, are listed before the text, making it easy to scan. The chronological period covered is roughly 1877 to 1970. However, some later entries important to the topic are included, such as those on the compact disc, and the extension into rap performers in the article on "Sexually oriented lyrics." The main focus is on developments in America, but international subjects are also included.

Because the field covered is a technological medium featuring a variety of topics, the content of the entries runs the gamut from engineering techniques and recording studios to performers, music genres, etc. The reader will find a defini-

tion for the "ping pong effect" (a stereophonic separation of signals); an entry for "Trevor Pinnock" (contemporary English harpsichordist important in the Early Music movement and a winner of several recording awards); an extensive bibliography of sound recordings periodicals; a description of the *Salon du Phonographe* in Paris, perhaps the earliest record library; and a concise summary of the present state of the "Preservation of sound recordings," among others.

An extensive bibliography (pp. 787-824), compiled from the articles and keyed to them, and a detailed index close the work. This encyclopedia provides a reference work in an area yet to be heavily covered by the scholarly literature and does so in an intelligently organized and informative way.—E.D.

DANCE

Bopp, Mary S. *Research in Dance: A Guide to Resources*. New York: G. K. Hall, 1994. 296p. \$50 (ISBN 0-8161-9065-8). LC 92-42508.

This welcome and long-needed guide is divided into two parts, the first listing sources for dance material and the second listing printed resources. The meat of the first section is a list of libraries and archives including many non-U.S. institutions. Each entry, compiled through questionnaires and, in some cases, site visits, includes a brief description of the collection, any specialized finding aids, and information about circulation policies. This section is completed by a convenient list of dance publishers, specialized bookstores, and dance organizations.

The section on printed sources is a topically arranged, annotated bibliography of reference works, including many sources on ethnic dances. It also lists alphabetically some two hundred, mainly English-language, dance periodicals available as of 1992 for all kinds of dance, ballroom, folk, classical, etc.

Any library with an interest in the arts, popular culture, or ethnic studies should find this work very useful.—M.C.

International Dictionary of Ballet. Ed. Martha Bremser. Detroit: St James Pr.,

1993. 2 vols. \$230 (ISBN 1-55862-084-2). LC 93-25051.

Since Selma-Jeanne Cohen's long-awaited international dictionary of dance appears to be on hold, this work is a must-buy for any library with an interest in the arts. Like the other St James encyclopedias, it has many virtues. The well-written entries deal primarily with individuals and specific ballets and provide essential information (including lists of major roles and their dates), generally well-balanced essays, and references to other sources. Unfortunately, the work is stronger on details than on overviews; individual ballet companies are listed but not general periods. A student needing a brief explanation of the Romantic ballet will find nothing, not even cross-references to the informative entries on Gautier, *La Sylphide*, Cerrito, *Giselle*, and many others. Nor are terms defined; nothing on the development of the tutu, the point shoe, or ballet technique.

There is a slight British and European bias in the choice of dancers and ballets. Nijinska's *La Valse* is the main entry, while Balanchine's version gets a paragraph; some young British dancers get entries but not their American counterparts.

It is lavishly illustrated, and the photographs are generally well-chosen though not always well-documented—dates, and sometimes roles, are not uniformly provided. But these are quibbles, and this is a welcome resource for the useful information it does provide.—M.C.

ART AND ARCHITECTURE

Spanish Artists from the Fourth to the Twentieth Century: A Critical Dictionary. Frick Art Reference Library, New York. New York: G. K. Hall, 1993. Vol. 1 (to be in 3 vols.). \$420 (ISBN 0-8161-0614-2).

Readers of this dictionary might at first be disappointed that biographical information is limited. But once the reader finds out that this dictionary of 7,000 artists' names grew out of the Frick Art Reference Library's name-authority file of Spanish artists drawn from its photograph archive, it becomes clear

that the dictionary far surpasses any standard for a name-authority file. By adding bibliographic citations after every name listed, it fills a serious gap in the bibliographic world.

The acknowledged precedent for *Spanish Artists* is the privately printed *Catalogue of Painters and Draughtsmen Represented in the Library of Reproductions of Pictures & Drawings Formed by Robert and Mary Witt* (London, 1920). But unlike the Witt's *Catalogue*, the Frick's *Spanish Artists* offers more than just an alphabetical list of artists with basic information transferred from the captions and annotations accompanying the photographs. *Spanish Artists* includes the artist's dates and medium (if not a painter), variant names of the artist (90,000 names are listed), national school (if significant), and a brief bibliography. Variant forms of the artist's name immediately follow the preferred entry, and each entry ends with bibliographic references where further information on the artist can be found. Cross-references from variant forms to the preferred form of each artist's name are particularly critical in sorting out compound Spanish surnames.

Spanish Artists begins with an introduction that describes both the inspiration for this publication and the historical foundation for such a publication at the Frick. A guide to use written in English, Spanish, French, and German follows.

At the time of this review, only volume 1 has been published. At the end of the last volume (vol. 3) there will be a chronological list of all the artists listed and a complete bibliography of sources used in the compilation of information on each artist. The end of volume 1 already has the complete alphabetical list of cross-references that refer to the established entries that fall within the first volume (artists names from A to F), as well as a bibliography of all sources cited in volume 1. The bibliography for the volume is quite large (50 pages and approximately 1,400 citations). The complete bibliography at the end of the final volume will in itself be a significant contribution to the scholarship on Spanish art.

Although this work may not fulfill every desire for an authoritative biographical dictionary of Spanish artists, it goes much further than any other currently available source in providing authoritative bibliographical and basic biographical information for Spanish artists.—P.G.

Storror, William Allin. *A Frank Lloyd Wright Companion*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1993. 492p. \$75 (ISBN 0-226-77624-7). LC 93-30127.

The stated purpose of this work is to be a companion, not an encyclopedia, and it lives up to this purpose by documenting in plans, black-and-white photographs, drawings, and commentary, Frank Lloyd Wright's nearly 500 known works built from over 20,000 drawings, including about 100 structures that have been destroyed. In addition to identifying each built structure designed by Frank Lloyd Wright or under his direction, the author places the work within a context by client, by the time and/or place of the design's conception or construction, or by a combination of these.

The six-page preface provides information essential to understanding Storror's approach and presentation of material. Most important to note is that the work features as-built plans and photographs that abide by Wright's rules of composition. The author of *The Architecture of Frank Lloyd Wright: A Complete Catalog* (Cambridge: MIT Pr., 1974), Mr. Storror knows his subject and refers to other books on Wright such as Henry-Russell Hitchcock's *In the Nature of Materials* (New York: Duell, 1942) and the 12-volume *Frank Lloyd Wright* (Tokyo: A.D.A. Edita, 1984-1988) by the Taliesin archivist, Bruce Brooks Pfeiffer, in order to explain how this book is different.

Arranged chronologically, each entry includes the basic facts of the building, including the following: the author's unique catalog number (Storror number); a project number (T. or Taliesin number); an identifying name (with the parts necessary for unique identification in boldface type); the date the project first took a form fully identifiable in the

final built work; the location of the project by city and state; and notes on the current status of the original work. Due to the difficulty for some in "reading" plans, plans are not only shown but also described in most entries. As mentioned above, the contextual content of each entry is what makes this work unique. Information on visiting these buildings (where possible) is also included.

Entries are interspersed with eight short essays on different phases or aspects of Wright's work, with titles such as, "Transition from Prairie to Usonia," "Historical Overview of Frank Lloyd Wright's Career," and 18 one-page sets of plans and text with titles such as, "Prairie Vocabulary," and "Basics of Early Wright Design." There are some references to these essays within the entries and some essays and plans refer to entries; however, these helpful additions are not indexed.

The Frank Lloyd Wright Companion includes extensive illustration credits and a well-formatted directory by zip code, which includes the street address, building name, and Storror number. Phone numbers for visitor information are listed. The index has entries under client, project (in bold), and geographic name among other access points. With the exception of subject, references are to the Storror number rather than page number.

This comprehensive reference work lacks a selected bibliography that could add value to what is an indispensable new tool for any Wright collection.—K.A.K.

BUSINESS

Weimerskirch, Arnold, and Stephen George. *Total Quality Management: Strategies and Techniques Proven at Today's Most Successful Companies*. The Portable MBA series. New York: Wiley, 1994. 286p. \$27.95 (ISBN 0-471-59538-1). LC 93-24465.

The guide derives from the performance criteria for the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award and presents a model of integrated corporate quality using data from fifty-three leading U.S.

companies. Initially the book discusses the methodology of a corporate quality model, and outlines how other sections of the book can be used by managers to measure their business elements. Subsequently each of the sixteen major components of the model is discussed in a separate chapter. These are: leadership, customer focus, strategic planning, management, training, reward and recognition, employee focus, customer contacts, design of products and services, process management, supplier quality, data collection and analysis, benchmarking, corporate responsibility and citizenship, and system assessments. For each of these elements a group of companies (being a subset of the fifty-three) is identified whose performance and practices exemplify superior quality and the nature of their success is analyzed.

The work is a useful discussion of the strategies and techniques for using total quality management and thus will be of use to all levels of the workplace.—J.C.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Eigen, Lewis D., and Jonathan P. Siegel. *The Macmillan Dictionary of Political Quotations*. New York: Macmillan, [1993]. 785p. \$40 (ISBN 0-02610650-7). LC 91-40116.

This quotation dictionary is intended to be "a practical tool for the politician, speech writer, journalist, political scientist, historian, student of politics, or anyone interested in politics and its effect on our daily lives"—*Pref.* The quotations are divided into 99 topics that are arranged in alphabetical order and cover a broad range of current public issues from abortion to welfare. The editors state that these quotations were selected for their "terseness, the character of the speaker or writer, the use of instructive or unusual analogies and metaphors, the persuasive impact of the quotation, the clear statement of an important principle, the classic framing of issues, controversy, humor, surprise, historical parallels, institutional insight, irony, emotion, and inspiration."

The quotations come from both historical and contemporary sources and,

although predominantly Anglo-American, international sources. The origins are extremely varied: from the Old Testament and Cicero to very recent political speeches quoted in newspapers, broadcast interviews, bumper stickers, and campaign slogans. Each entry lists speaker, birth and death dates and positions held, source and date of the publication or broadcast, if applicable. All types of historical and contemporary political figures appear—congress people and monarchs, consumer advocates and capitalists.

The volume is indexed by author and "concept." The latter helps to locate appropriate quotations that appear under other topical headings. The book is not only fun to browse but easy to use when looking for an appropriate quotation. An intelligent topical division and the usable subject index help to locate relevant quotations easily.—J.S.

The Oxford Companion to Politics of the World. Ed.-in-chief, Joel Krieger. New York: Oxford Univ. Pr., [1993]. 1,056p. il. maps. \$59.50 (ISBN 0-19-5059344). LC 92-25043.

Shafritz, Jay M., Phil Williams, and Ronald S. Calinger. *The Dictionary of Twentieth Century World Politics*. New York: Henry Holt, [1993]. 756p. il. \$60 (ISBN 0-8050-1976-6).

The Oxford Companion aims to provide "a comprehensive guide to international relations and national domestic politics through the world" and to a great extent it achieves its goal in a concise one-volume format. It focuses on the "more enduring themes and issues: the social bases of politics; the organizations and institutions of politics at the international and national levels; law, foreign policy, and economic and social policy; the linkage between international and domestic developments; and the recurring patterns of change in diverse societies . . ."—*Pref.*

Over 500 scholars (see the list, pp. xiii-xxxi), largely from American and British universities, have contributed 650 signed articles with bibliographies. Articles fall into ten categories: (1) short es-

says on countries, (2) biographies of leaders and intellectual figures, (3) concepts (sovereignty, citizenship, political violence, postindustrial society), (4) conventions, treaties, and developments in international law, (5) forms of government and institutions, (6) historical events, (7) international issues (AIDS, anti-Semitism, liberation theology), (8) international organizations (the Roman Catholic Church, EC, OPEC), (9) domestic political, economic, and social issues, and (10) twenty-one interpretive essays that provide "major analytic treatments of particularly significant and far-reaching themes, such as ethnicity, nationalism, gender and politics, development and underdevelopment, war, democracy, class and politics, political parties and environmentalism." The majority of articles concern the period since World War II. Many of the articles have useful maps.

Following a brief description of its geography, population, and historical background, each of the articles on countries treats the social bases of politics, the political system, socioeconomic policies, internal conflict, and its foreign policy and international relations.

There are some minor, inevitable flaws such as typographical errors (*punitive* kinship should certainly read *putative*), but generally, this is a solidly constructed, professional work that should be a valuable reference book for all living in this revolutionary world. The volume ends with a good, general index.

The Dictionary of 20th Century World Politics, by Jay M. Shafritz et al., offers 4,000 entries and covers some of the same material. Its aim is to be a dictionary of "people, theories and ideas that have impacted and transformed international politics in the twentieth century . . . specifically including political terms found in newspapers and mass-market journals that have not yet found their way into the text of reference and scholarly books"—Pref. Thus it has many more biographical entries and political events, including international conferences, but with briefer treatment. Useful will be the summaries of treaty provisions. The volume also features "irresist-

ible asides" which might be lists of rulers or Nobel Peace Prize winners, a chronology such as the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, a text such as the Austro-Hungarian declaration of war in 1914 or a quotation or speech. The index is a "key concept" list of broad subjects with a list of relevant articles. There is no bibliography.

The Shafritz volume will be used for ready reference, and identification, while the *Oxford Companion* will be available for much more extended use.—J.S.

SOCIAL ISSUES

The Blackwell Dictionary of Twentieth-Century Social Thought. Ed. William Outhwaite and Tom Bottomore. Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1993. 864p. \$49.95 (ISBN 0-631-15262-8). LC 92-20837.

This dictionary covers the vast area of social sciences, philosophy, political science, cultural history, and even natural sciences to the extent that they have influenced social thought. It aims to cover this enormous interdisciplinary field through three key elements: (1) major concepts, (2) principal schools and movements, and (3) institutions and organizations that are important either as the sources of ideas or the subjects of study.

A collaborative endeavor of many contributors (see the list, pp. vii-xiii), the work treats those key ideas and institutions in concise articles that range from half a column to several pages in length. Each article is signed and accompanied by a bibliography of two to ten items for further reading. The articles are arranged alphabetically by topic and followed by the Biographical Appendix (pp. 727-40), which includes major theorists from Adorno to Wittgenstein, and a substantial bibliography of works that have contributed to the shaping of twentieth-century social thought (pp. 741-836). The volume ends with a detailed index.—J.S.

Nordquist, Joan. *Radical Ecological Theory: A Bibliography*. Social Theory: A Bibliographic Series, no. 30. Santa Cruz, Calif.:

Reference and Research Services, 1993. 72p. \$15 (ISBN 0-937855-59-6).

This power-packed little bibliography should, like its predecessors in the series, prove useful in any academic library, both for students new to the field as well as for those more advanced needing a quick summary of the topic. It begins with a brief overview of the field and then lists books and articles on such emerging topics as Marxist and socialist ecological theory and ecofeminist theory.

This series, *Social Theory*, and its companion, *Contemporary Social Issues*, are intended to provide references to topics and individuals that are currently of interest to college students, from Michel Foucault, for example, to homelessness. They have been very useful in our library when students are overwhelmed by the amount of material keyword searches produce in current periodical indexes. And their commendable habit of citing works by foreign authors in both the original language and English translation has answered many verification questions. These series give relevance a good name.—M.C.

HISTORY

DeWitt, Donald L. *Guides to Archives and Manuscript Collections in the United States: An Annotated Bibliography*. Bibliographies and indexes in library and information science, 8. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1994. 478p. (ISBN 0-313-28499-7). LC 93-37179.

The compiler is to be commended for the sheer volume of published archival guides that constitutes this reference book. There are 2,062 entries, ranging from guides to an individual manuscript or archival collection, to repository guides, to national archival guides. Reviewers will no doubt find their own pet omissions—mine is *Russia in the Twentieth Century: The Catalog of the Bakmeteff Archive of Russian and East European History and Culture*. Rare Book and Manuscript Library, Columbia University (1DC197).

Any arrangement for such a disparate pool of entries would have had its shortcomings. The compiler chose a topical approach and arranged the entries un-

der the following headings: General Collections, Business Collections, Ethnic Minorities and Women, Federal Archives, Fine Arts Collections, Literary Collections, Military Collections, Political Collections, Professional Groups and Organizations, Regional Collections, Religious Groups, Foreign Repositories Holding U.S. Related Records, and U.S. Repositories Holding Foreign Records or Manuscripts.

Not all the headings work equally well. The section under "Federal Archives" devoted to the National Archives, for example, works quite well because one finds there a listing of the published guides to the holdings of the National Archives. However, a subject category such as "Social Science" under the heading "Professional Groups and Organizations" is too imprecise to be meaningful. Its sixteen entries do not begin to do justice to this vast area.

The index—name and subject—helps remedy some of the drawbacks inherent in the arrangement, but it is neither thorough nor precise enough to help locate all the pertinent information on a topic contained in the work. For example, though the annotations often enumerate subjects covered in the collection or repository, these subjects are often not reflected in the index. A case in point: the annotation describing the guide to the Princeton's manuscript collections (#1,113) mentions renaissance manuscripts, but the index entry for "Renaissance Manuscripts" omits any reference to Princeton. Moreover, entries such as the archival guides of the Center for Migration Studies (#329) or the guide to the archives of the Scalabrian Fathers (#1,766), which deals exclusively with the Italian immigrant experience, are not listed in the index under "Italian American Collections."

This bibliography is a most worthy undertaking. Subsequent editions will surely add entries, and will no doubt improve on the arrangement and index.—O.d.C.

Encyclopedia of the Confederacy. Ed.-in-chief, Richard N. Current. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1993. 4 vols.

(1,916p.) il. maps. \$295 (ISBN 0-13-275991-8). LC 93-4133.

This encyclopedia is "directed not only to professional historians and history students but to everyone who ever has occasion to answer a question about the South during the period of 1861 to 1865"—Pref. It is well-illustrated with many period photographs and etchings, together with modern maps of battles and campaigns. The list of contributors includes such noted historians as Anne Firor Scott, who wrote the entry on women; Elizabeth Fox-Genovese, who contributed the entries on Diaries, Letters, and Memoirs; and Augusta Jane Evans. Other contributors are based in colleges and universities throughout the United States (although predominantly in the South) as well as national battlefields and historic sites, historical societies, museums, libraries, and archives. Signed entries range in length from several paragraphs to more than twenty pages, and from biographical entries to discussions of topics related to union and disunion, government and politics, the military, the economy, and society and culture. All entries include up-to-date bibliographies of secondary materials. This work includes a synoptic outline of contents; nine appendices listing major documents (including the Declaration of the Immediate Cause of Secession, the Constitution, and the various surrender paroles); a subject index; and lists of contributors. Much of the factual information provided could probably be found elsewhere in a major reference collection, but the combination of clear and concise writing, compelling illustrations, and up-to-date bibliographies will make this a welcome addition to reference departments of all sizes.—S. S.

Magosci, Paul Robert. *Historical Atlas of East Central Europe*. History of East Central Europe, 1. Seattle: Univ. of Washington Pr., 1993. 192p. il. maps. \$75 (ISBN 0-295-97248-3). LC 93-13783.

Students of Eastern Europe will be pleased by word of the release of a new

volume in the University of Washington's excellent *History of East Central Europe*, this one a historical atlas of the region by Paul Magosci, a scholar whose many reference publications include a historical atlas of Ukraine as well. The work fills a gap in the literature admirably, with clear, professionally produced maps documenting the history of the region extending roughly from the "eastern linguistic frontier of German- and Italian-speaking peoples on the west [to] the political boundaries of Russia/the former USSR in the east."—Foreword. Comprehensive coverage is provided for the Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Hungarians, Romanians, the Yugoslav peoples, Albanians, Bulgarians, and Greeks from the fifth century through 1992, with more selective treatment of neighboring groups included during various periods, particularly Poland-Lithuania or Austria-Hungary.

Fullest coverage is given to the ever-changing, widely shifting political boundaries and political units of the region, but other maps, particularly in the sections dealing with the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, document geographic regions, demography and migration, ethnolinguistic distribution, military history, ecclesiastical organization, industrial development, and cultural institutions. An extensive commentary provides a detailed outline history of the region and often provides useful statistical and other supplementary data. A clear list of the sources consulted for each map and a more extensive bibliography are included at the end, along with an index of place names.

Naturally, as might be expected in the case of any work this ambitious, there are points over which one might quibble. There is, for example, the consistent, anachronistic use of contemporary national spellings for city names, frequently without any indication of the historic form, which can be quite jarring—to say nothing of misinformative—in the case, say of medieval "Kaliningrad" (rather than "Königsberg"), a diocese of Ermeland with its seat at "Frombork" (rather than "Frauenburg"), or the use of the

Belarusian spelling "Mohilau" for a town almost never so designated in the historical sources and far better known to Western readers as "Mogilev," "Moghilev," or "Mohilev." Also disappointing, for this reader, were the explicit decisions to exclude the territory of contemporary Latvia and Estonia, whose history was very much part of East Central Europe's and, even more, the unspoken decision to leave out, in most cases, the easternmost and northernmost borders of Poland-Lithuania in the fifteenth through seventeenth centuries. Such considerations, however, are of little consequence compared with the great contribution of such a publication to the literature. It is a work that belongs in every collection that claims to document European history, providing as it does, in a compact, accessible form, coverage of a key region whose complex history is far too little known even by educated readers in this country.—R.H.S.

Phillips, Gillian, and Claude Morin. *Canada's Relations with Latin America and the Caribbean, 1970-1990: A Bibliography/ Les relations du Canada avec l'Amérique latine et les caraïbes, 1970-1990*. [Ottawa]: Canadian Association of Latin American and Caribbean Studies, [1993]. 1,172 p. (ISBN 0-969-72120).

First, why the terrible paper which will become very brittle quickly? One can hope that this means that the compilers plan frequent updates that will supersede the present edition.

The bibliography is based on the collections at the University of Montreal and the Canada-Latin America Resource Center in Toronto, supplemented by materials in about 30 additional libraries and information centers in Ontario and Quebec. It includes citations for over 13,000 books, documents, journal and newspaper articles, and theses in a topical arrangement under the name of a country. For example, Argentina is divided into such headings as Argentinians in Canada, Economy-Debt, Foreign Aid, Human Rights, etc. The documents and articles cited in the French half of the bibliog-

raphy could be unique and not translated and so would not appear in the English portion. Access could be improved if the table of contents were more detailed.

The appendix features a list of countries and regions included in the bibliography, acronyms used, periodicals and journals indexed, libraries contacted and databases searched, Canadian organizations and agencies involved with Latin America and the Caribbean with addresses, abbreviations, and codes used in the bibliography.—E.M.

NEW EDITIONS AND SUPPLEMENTS

The *Eighteenth Century Short Title Catalog* (ESTC) is an online union catalog on RLIN providing records of publications printed from 1701 to 1800 in Great Britain or its colonies (including the United States), as well as of English-language publications printed during that period in any part of the world (for a longer description see 1AA128). In April some 75,000 records of materials published from 1473 to 1700 were added, necessitating a change in name to the *English Short Title Catalog*. The Center for Bibliographic Studies and Research at the University of California at Riverside in conjunction with the British Library will continue to add records until RLIN's coverage of pre-1701 imprints is complete. The records also offer pointers to UMI's microfilm collections, *Early English Books*, based on the bibliographies of Pollard & Redgrave (AA802, 1AA127) and Wing (AA819, 1AA131). Already items not in these two printed STCs have been identified. Also beneficial are the enhanced searching techniques available on a computerized database, for example, full titles for keyword searching, as well as provision of locations and shelfmarks.

With the 10th edition, *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* changed names to mirror the new name of the publisher: *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (Springfield, Mass.: [1993]. 1,559p. \$20.95; 9th ed. [1983]. 1563p. AD16). The 10th edition addresses our "ever expanding vocabulary . . . [for] words and senses are

born at a far greater rate than that at which they die out"—Pref. There are a great many new pictorial illustrations and citations. Much revised are the usage paragraphs that are based on the *Webster's Dictionary of English Usage* ([1989]. 989p. 1AD30). A first-rate desk dictionary.

While preparing for the Third Edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary* new information is accumulating that the editors, John Simpson and Edmund S. C. Weiner, are now publishing under the title *Oxford English Dictionary Additions* (vols. 1-2. Oxford: Clarendon Pr.; New York: Oxford Univ. Pr., 1993. \$35 each volume). These initial volumes address English throughout the world and offer new headwords, new senses, collocations, phrases. Thus we have such words as *unix*, *virus* (as in computer virus), *El Niño*. Vol. 2 has a cumulative index to both volumes.

The *Australian Dictionary of Biography* has thus far covered 1788-1850, 1851-1890, 1891-1939 in 12 volumes with a general index ([1966-[1991]. AJ115, 1AJ33). Volume 13, just published (Melbourne: Univ. Pr., 1993. 362p. \$52), begins a new series for 1940-1980, A-De, with 670 entries; it will be in four volumes and will portray 2,700 lives when it is complete. Volume 13 has a list of corrections identified since the index was published. The *Dictionary of Canadian Biography* (AJ143), in contrast, publishes individual volumes covering ten years. The latest to appear is v. XIII (Toronto: Univ. Pr., 1994. 1295p.), which covers 648 individuals who died 1901-1910, written by 438 scholars.

Slovenski biografski leksikon (Ljubljana: Založila Zadružna gos. banka) is now complete with the receipt of fascicles 12-15 for volume 4 and the index, *Osebnostno kazalo* (1991. 245p.). Begun in 1925 (AJ399, 1AJ103) the set has long scholarly articles on noted Slovenians. The name index uses boldface type to indicate major entries. With volume 3, *Hrvatski biografski leksikon* (Zagreb: Jugoslavenski leksikografski zavod, 1993. 1AJ102) has reached C-D for noted Croatsians.

When complete, *Literatur zur deutschsprachigen Presse: Eine Bibliographie* com-

plied by Gert Hagelweide (Munich: Saur, 1985-1989. 3 vols. 1AE37) will cover the German-speaking press, mostly of Central Europe up to 1970. Volume 4 (1993. ÖS2496.) treats the topics: Tageszeitung (Presse), Die Zeitschrift, Almanache und Kalender, Die Presse (Tageszeitung) in Geschichte und Gegenwart (arranged by area). The bibliography is slated to be in nine volumes, the last to be an index volume.

Several periodical and newspaper indexes have changed their pattern of publication. With the 1993 issues, the *Alternative Press Index* (Baltimore: Alternative Press Center. AE240) is publishing quarterly with the fourth issue being the cumulation for the year. *Zeitungs Index* (Pullach bei München: Verlag Dokumentation. AF92) is now monthly instead of quarterly. The 1993 issues indexes 21 German newspapers including two from Zurich, one from Vienna, and one from the former East Berlin.

The *Index of Jewish Periodicals* (Cleveland. BB577) has filled in the gaps with the two annual retrospective indexes for 1988 (published in 1992) and 1989 (published in 1993). The latest index issued covers 1993. It now seems to be an annual.

Offering retrospective indexing is *Antisemitism: An Annotated Bibliography*, edited by Susan Sarah Cohen and sponsored by the Vidal Sassoon International Center for the Study of Anti-Semitism, Hebrew University of Jerusalem (New York: Garland. 1BB128). The latest volume received is volume three indexing publications of 1987-88 and published in 1994 (584p. \$85). The *Bibliographie zum Antisemitismus/ Bibliography of Antisemitism* is complete with volume 4, the Sachregister, compiled by Antje Gerlach (Munich: Saur, 1993. 1,576p.).

Charles Cutter and Micha Falk Oppenheim revised their *Judaica Reference Guide* (2d ed. Juneau, Alaska: Denali Pr. [1993]. 224p. \$35; 1st ed. 1983. BB539), increasing the number of citations from 371 to 888 annotated entries. Concentrating particularly on works published after 1975, the bibliography relies on *Bibliography of Jewish Bibliographies* by Shlomo Shunami (1969. BB565) and its

supplement (1975) for most earlier materials.

The *Encyclopedia of World Literature in the 20th Century*, Steven R. Serafin and Walter D. Glanze, eds., issued a volume 5: *Supplement and Index* (New York: Continuum, [1993]. 732p. \$150; vols. 1-4, 1984. BD60). This supplement is intended to "complement the four-volume Revised Edition by providing enlarged treatment of significant literary writers active during the century and throughout the world . . . by focusing on the last decade."—*Pref.* There are continuations of surveys of national literatures and discussions of new literary trends or movements. The index covers all of the five-volume set and thus the previously published index in 1984 is superseded; omitted from the index in volume 5 is boldface type to indicate major topics.

James L. Harner, in his *Literary Research Guide: A Guide to Reference Sources for the Study of Literature in English and Related Topics* (2d ed. New York: Modern Language Association of America, 1993. 766p. \$45, paper \$19.75; 1st ed. 1989. 1BD149), has revised about half of the entries, deleted superseded works or defunct journals, and added important new reference tools. It now includes "1,194 entries, refers to an additional 1,248 books and articles in annotations and headnotes and cites 745 reviews."—*Pref.* The guide also includes discussion of technology, for example, union catalog databases online.

Part 4, 1800-1900, of the *Index of English Literary Manuscripts* has reached Walter Savage Landor, George Meredith, William Morris, Walter Pater, and Coventry Patmore with volume 3 edited by Barbara Rosenbaum ([London]: Mansell, [1993]. 860p. \$500. BD546, 1BD215).

The Literary Criticism Index is also in a new edition (Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow, 1994. 580p. \$62.50). Compiled by Alan R. Weiner and Spencer Means the volume now indexes some 147 bibliographies and checklists of criticism, up from 86 in the first edition (1984. 685p. BD119).

The *Cambridge Guide to Literature in English*, edited by Ian Ousby (New York:

Cambridge Univ. Pr., 1994. 1,054p. il. \$49.95) was formerly published in 1983 as the *Cambridge Guide to English Literature* (992p. BD554) and again under the present title in 1988 (1,109p. 1BD218). This new edition is considerably revised and expanded with special attention toward increasing the number of American and Commonwealth authors. All of the entries have been read by its editors to update, expand, or shorten the entries as necessary.

The new edition of *Mainstream Companion to Scottish Literature*, compiled by Trevor Royle (Edinburgh: Mainstream, [1993]. 335p.; formerly *Macmillan Companion to Scottish Literature*, 1983. BD739) updates the earlier work by concentrating on new writers or movements of the 1980s. Also, former entries have been revised when needed and additions made. The bibliographies at the ends of the articles have also been made more current. Unfortunately the dictionary is still not indexed, though there are cross-references.

Scholars working in nineteenth-century French literature have been gifted with the lacking volumes of the *Critical Bibliography of French Literature: The Nineteenth Century* (Syracuse: Univ Pr., 1994. 2 vols. 1,488p. \$225; for volumes published earlier see BD957). The editor, David Baguley, follows the same format as the previously published volumes—that is, scholars assigned chapters on individual authors or genres. The cutoff date is 1989, with a few "particularly significant" later titles added. Name and subject indexes are included.

For those interested in the theater several new volumes and editions have appeared. Volumes 15-16 of that labor of love, the *Biographical Dictionary of Actors, Actresses, Musicians, Dancers, Managers & Other Stage Personnel* (Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois Univ. Pr., 1993. \$60 per volume. BG96, 1BG36), compiled by Philip H. Highfill, Jr., Kalman A. Burnim, Edward A. Langhans, complete the encyclopedia. There has been no mention of an index.

Reinhart Meyer's *Bibliographia dramatica et dramaticorum* (Tübingen: Niemeyer.

1BD295) lists by author German plays of the eighteenth century. Now Meyer has begun a title index, the first three volumes covering 1700-1716. Abteilung 2, Band 1: Einzeltitel (1700) includes the list of libraries and abbreviations, a bibliography of printed sources, and the title index for 1700—those with known authors and those with anonymous titles ([1993]. 498p. SFr198); Band 2: Einzeltitel (1701-1708) lists by year those titles with authors followed by anonymous titles ([1993]. 481p. SFr198) as does volume 3 (1709-1716. 487p. SFr198). The alphabetizing is typical of this type of German reference book, that is, alphabetical by the first keyword in the title. An entry includes editions, collections, and occasionally a cast list or summary.

Contemporary Dramatists, ed. K. A. Berney, now in its fifth edition (London and Detroit: St James Pr., [1993]. 843p. \$85; 4th ed. 1988. 785p., ed. D. L. Kirkpatrick. 1BD88) has grown to include 450 living dramatists. The editor points out that he has made a special effort to include those writing on very contemporary topics such as AIDS, or "whether it is right to seek revenge for criminal wrongs or to erase the memory of suffering."—Pref.

The second edition of *International Dictionary of Films and Filmmakers* (Chicago: St James Pr.) is complete with the publication of volumes 4-5. Volume 4, *Writers and Production Artists*, edited by Samantha Cook ([1993]. 836p. \$115), treats art directors, cinematographers, costume designers, composers, music directors (and arrangers and lyricists), editors, choreographers, stuntmen, special effects and sound technicians, makeup artists and animators. Sixty-two of the 530 entries are new. Volume 5, also edited by Samantha Cook, is the *Title Index* ([1994]. 421p. \$65) to all the films mentioned in volumes 1-4 with cross-references for alternative or English-language titles.

The *Filmllexicon degli autori e delle opere* (1958-1974. 9 vols. BG239) is an authoritative, international film encyclopedia. The publishers have now issued an update for the Italian cinema: *Sezione Italia: aggiornamenti e integrazioni 1972-1991* (Roma: Nuova ERI, 1992. 1,092

columns. 81,700 lire). New figures are added and articles from the earlier volumes are extended with reference to the earlier coverage.

William Safire, in his new edition of *Safire's New Political Dictionary: The Definitive Guide to the New Language of Politics* (New York: Random House, [1993]. 930p. \$35), points out that since the third edition was published in 1978 (CJ99), he has seen the "advent of three new administrations, the end of the Cold War, the dissolution of Soviet-type communism."—*Introd.* His fourth edition reflects these changes and, as always, is fun to browse.

Kenneth Martis has compiled a number of very helpful atlases for the study of United States politics, for example *Historical Atlas of U.S. Congressional Districts, 1789-1983* (1982. CJ154); *Historical Atlas of Political Party Representation in the U.S. Congress 1789-1989* (1988. 1CJ116). His newest one, compiled with Gregory A. Elmes, the *Historical Atlas of State Power in Congress 1789-1990* (Washington, D.C.: Congressional Quarterly [1993]. 190p. \$56.95 27cm.), covers Congressional apportionment by decade and geographically through colored maps, tables and charts, and explanatory text. Some of the material is taken from the *Historical Atlas of U.S. Congressional Districts, 1789-1983*.

Scarecrow Press has been publishing the *Native American Bibliography Series* since 1980 (1CC218). The newest addition is *The Seneca and Tuscarora Indians: An Annotated Bibliography*, by Marilyn Haas (1994. 450p. \$55). This is an exhaustive undertaking listing books, chapters and essays, pamphlets, journal articles, theses, ERIC documents, fiction and nonfiction for children, state and federal documents, and "tribally focused periodicals" (*Introd.*) for 1791-1992, mostly in English. The arrangement is by broad subjects with author/editor and subject indexes. Since the Seneca and the Tuscarora were part of the Iroquois nation, the bibliography cites a number of larger works on the Iroquois.

Another series concerning the Native American is the *Handbook of the American Frontier: Four Centuries of Indian-White*

Relationships written by J. Norman Heard ((Metuchen: Scarecrow). It is a dictionary of short articles on the tribes and the explorers, missionaries, tribal leaders, traders, settlers, battles, treaties, etc. who had contacts with each other. Volume 1 discussed *The Southeastern Woodlands* (1987. 421p.) and volume 2 provided the same coverage for *The Northeastern Woodlands* (1990. 414p.) Now volume 3, *The Great Plains* (1993. [265]p. \$32.50), continues the coverage. The set is to be in five volumes with the general index, bibliography, and chronology in the final volume.

Francis Paul Prucha compiled an extremely useful *Handbook for Research in American History* (1987. 1DB1). In his second revised edition (Lincoln, Nebr.: Univ. Nebraska Pr., [1994]. 214p. \$25; \$9.95 paper) the first part for essays and bibliographies of types and formats of reference books is much expanded and rewritten to incorporate the new technologies (the Internet, CD-ROMs, etc.). Part 2 of the first edition, which covered topical bibliographies (e.g., women, social history, chronological periods), has been dropped and some of the citations incorporated into some of the remaining sections. Still a major guide for American historians.

The *Bibliography of European Economic and Social History* is in a second edition, compiled by Derek Aldcroft and Richard Rodger (Manchester: Univ. Pr., distributed by St. Martin's Pr., New York, [1993]. 292p. \$69.95; 1st ed. 1984. DC10). The bibliography covers the period 1700 to 1939 with about 9,000 entries; this is an increase of about 3,000 mostly from the 1980s. Similar to the first edition, the volume is arranged topically under the names of the countries, for example, urban history, social structure and social conditions, industry and internal trade. There is an author index.

"To conform to the new realities brought about by the demise of the Soviet Union" (p. ii), the editors have changed the title of the *Modern Encyclopedia of Russian and Soviet History* to the *Modern Encyclopedia of Russian, Soviet and Eurasian History*. The first volume with

the new title is volume 56 (1994)—an Index of Countries and Authors. Part 1 is an alphabetical list of entries including the Supplement with See References included; part 2 is an alphabetical list of authors in all the volumes with a list of all their articles under each entry.

J. M. Dent, London, has published a number of Martin Gilbert's atlases in new editions, still in black-and-white, and most with little or no commentary. The *Dent Atlas of American History*, (3d ed. 1993. 138p. £14.99. 27cm.; 1st ed. 1968; rev. ed. 1985) has grown to 138 maps with the 26 new ones bringing the atlas up to date, for example, new ethnic and population changes, including growth of the immigrant population, natural and accidental disasters, death rates, the U.S. overseas. It is instructive to learn what a non-American sees as important.


Dent Atlas of Jewish History (5th ed. [1993]. [136]p. £14.99. 26cm.; formerly called *Jewish History Atlas*, 1st ed. 1969. DA65) has been revised despite a 1992 edition (issued in the U.S. in 1993): a number of new maps (e.g., anti-Semitic incidents in Europe 1992, Hebrew language classes in the former Soviet Union 1992); updated maps (e.g., immigration of Jews to Israel, non-Jews honored for saving lives in World War II); and newly added material (e.g., blood libel accusations in the Middle Ages, scale of Jewish resistance in the Holocaust). The bibliography, though, is current only up to about 1986.

The *Dent Atlas of the Holocaust* (2d ed. [1993]. 282p. 25cm. £14.99; 1st ed. 1982; reprinted, 1988. 1DA85) increased the coverage to 316 photographs, maps, lists with explanatory text, and expanded the index to include individuals and more places. The bibliography, pp. 246–53, indicates the map number beside the relevant source title.

The Official ABMS Directory of Board Certified Medical Specialists must be a cataloger's nightmare. The 26th ed., 1994 though published in 1993 (New Providence, N.J.: Marquis Who's Who, 1993. 4 vols. 8,377p. \$390), was formed by the merger of the *Directory of Medical*

Specialists (EK132) and the *Official American Board of Medical Specialties Directory of Board Certified Medical Specialists* (formerly called the *ABMS Compendium of Certified Medical Specialists*). These two titles had an earlier merger in 1985. This new directory lists 428,000 practicing

and retired physicians within 24 specialties boards. Also included in the volume are lists of accredited medical schools, state licensing boards, approved specialty boards, general information on each board, and tables of requirements and certification data.



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Tenure and Turnover in Academic Libraries

Elizabeth C. Henry, Dana M. Caudle,
and Paula Sullenger

This study examined the relationship between tenure and turnover rates for librarians in academic libraries. Survey forms were sent to 124 college and university library directors. The authors found no significant correlation between the two. However, there does seem to be a relationship between scholarly publishing requirements and turnover rates.



his study investigates the relationship between tenure requirements and turnover rates within academic libraries. The authors are new librarians in an academic institution where librarians are required to stand for tenure and promotion reviews like other faculty members. Much anecdotal evidence, both pro and con, exists concerning whether or not tenure requirements have a causative relationship with turnover rates. A search of the literature revealed no existing studies on the relationship between tenure requirements and turnover rates. The authors decided to conduct such a study in order to evaluate the relationship objectively, if any, of tenure requirements to turnover rates. It is also hoped that further research into the effects of faculty status and tenure-track requirements on professional librarians in college and university libraries will be stimulated.

SURVEY OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Surveys of librarians and their status have been in the library literature for decades. Since the establishment of the ACRL's "Standard for Faculty Status for College and University Librarians,"

published in 1971, there have been an increasing number of surveys investigating the status of librarians, their titles, rate of pay, and various other aspects of their professional lives.¹ In the mid-1980s several literature reviews discussed the topic of faculty status and tenure. Janet Krompart and Clara DiFelice highlighted the most often asked questions found in major surveys conducted from 1971 to 1984.² They discussed the findings of those surveys and the implications for the profession. Emily Werrell and Laura Sullivan looked at literature on librarians and faculty status from the mid-1970s to the mid-1980s.³ They examined librarians' feelings toward the idea of faculty status and the problems faced by librarians in the areas of publications/scholarship, governance within the library, collective bargaining, and the issue of librarians as teachers. Kee DeBoer and Wendy Cullotta reviewed the literature on the status of librarians, much of it survey research, in articles published between 1980 and 1987.⁴ They covered the topics mentioned in the previous two articles by comparing the results different authors found on the same topics. There were wide disparities found on subjects

such as the number of librarians with faculty status, sabbaticals, and funding for research. In 1992 Krompart published a comprehensive annotated bibliography of research done on faculty status.⁵

While the amount of published research on tenure is impressive, there is little on library turnover, and even less that links the two together. James Neal's studies on employee turnover rates in libraries have evaluated such factors as geography, salary, and spouse requirements and their effects on turnover rates.^{6,7,8} Dee Ann Allison and Eva Sartori questioned previous and current librarians on their decision to leave the University of Nebraska-Lincoln and analyzed their responses.⁹ Among their findings, they revealed that "less than 25% of those who left considered tenure very important in making a decision to leave or stay."¹⁰ Karen F. Smith and others found that "having tenure does not appear to be an overriding consideration restricting the mobility and advancement of tenured librarians. Librarians, whether married or not married, are generally tied to their jobs for a variety of personal reasons."¹¹

METHODOLOGY AND DISCUSSION

The authors listed all academic libraries found in *The American Library Directory*—excluding law and medical libraries—with five or more professional librarians. Every sixth library from this list was selected, which resulted in a random sample of college and university libraries in the United States. The only other similar survey, that of W. Bede Mitchell and L. Stanislava Swieszkowski, surveyed directors of Center for Research Libraries member libraries.¹² A wider, more representative sample of libraries was desired, because much research tends to focus only on major research libraries (see appendix A).

One hundred twenty-four libraries received the survey forms. Of this number, ninety-four were returned, mostly within the first two weeks of the mailing. A number of write-in comments were received on the form. The overall re-

sponse rate was 76 percent, compared to the 94.5 percent response rate of Mitchell and Swieszkowski.¹³ One survey had to be discarded because of incomplete information and one survey arrived too late to be included in the data set. Statistical analysis was performed on the remaining responses which represented 75 percent of the total sample.

The data were entered into PC SAS and all statistical tests were conducted at a 0.05 or 95 percent confidence level. Two general measures of crude turnover rates were calculated for each library. The accession rate is defined as the percentage of librarians hired during a given period. It is calculated by taking the number of librarians hired and dividing by the average number of librarians. The separation rate is defined as the percentage of librarians leaving during a given period. It is calculated by taking the number of librarians who leave the institution and dividing by the average number of librarians. Those who left for reasons of retirement or death were excluded.

Tenure track requirements for professional librarians in college and university libraries do not have a significant effect on their turnover rates.

A *t*-test for independent samples was performed for each of the turnover rates, with the granting of tenure as the dependent variable. The null hypothesis for the tests stated that libraries with tenure track appointment for professional librarians will have the same turnover rates as libraries without a tenure track. The *t*-test proved this hypothesis is true for both accession rates and separation rates. Turnover rates are statistically the same whether or not a library has tenure. Therefore, tenure track requirements for professional librarians in college and university libraries do not have a significant effect on their turnover rates.

An analysis of the error bars confirmed the results of the *t*-test. The error bars show a mean accession rate of 51.1 +/- 6.7

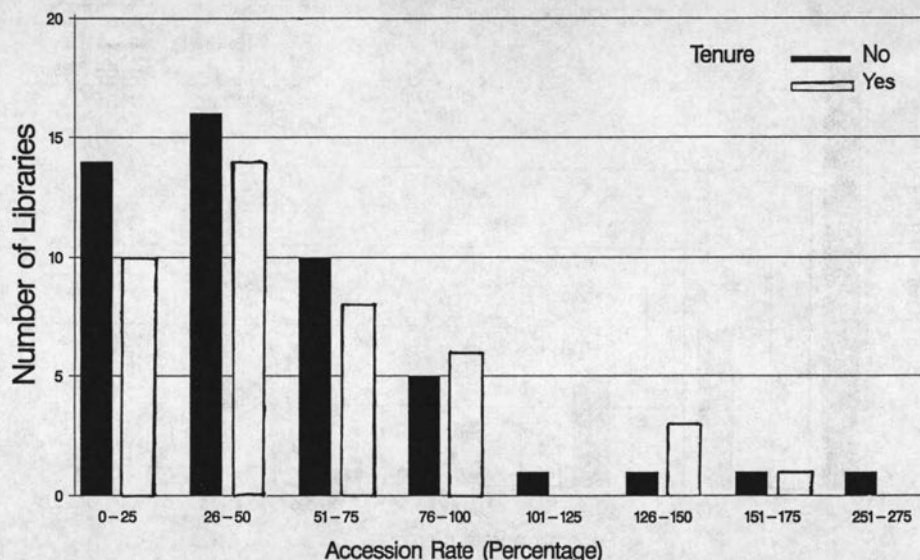


FIGURE 1
Accession Rates

percent for libraries that do not have tenure and a mean rate of 54.4 +/- 6.3 percent for libraries that do have tenure. Although there is a difference of 3.3 percent in the mean accession rates, it proves not to be statistically significant. The error bars also show a mean separation rate of 38.9 +/- 6.9 percent for libraries that do not have tenure and a mean rate of 33.7 +/- 5.0 percent for libraries with tenure for professional librarians. Again, this 5.2 percent difference in mean separation rates proves not to be statistically significant.

The range of values for the accession rates (figure 1) and separation rates (figure 2) in libraries with tenure is approximately twice that for libraries without tenure. The maximum value is 275 percent versus 175 percent for the accession rates, and 300 percent versus 129 percent for the separation rates.

Tenure denial rates and tenure approval rates were also calculated for each library that granted tenure. Forty-two out of the ninety-two, or 46 percent of the responses, came from libraries with tenure track appointments. In general, for academic institutions having

tenure track requirements, 93 percent of all librarians who stood for tenure received it, compared with 81.5 percent in Mitchell and Swieszkowski's survey.¹⁴

Next, a Pearson correlation was performed between the tenure denial/approval rates and the turnover rates. Here the null hypothesis stated that no correlation exists between the tenure denial rate and the accession/separation rates, and that no correlation exists between the tenure approval rate and the turnover rates. This hypothesis was proved false for all combinations. There are very small correlations indicating a relationship between the following combinations of rates (ranked by strength of the relationship from the strongest to weakest):

- There is an inverse correlation (meaning that one rate will decrease when the other increases) between the separation rate and the tenure approval rate.
- There is also an inverse correlation between the accession rate and the tenure approval rate.
- There is a positive correlation (meaning that the rates are directly related) between the separation rate and the tenure denial rate.

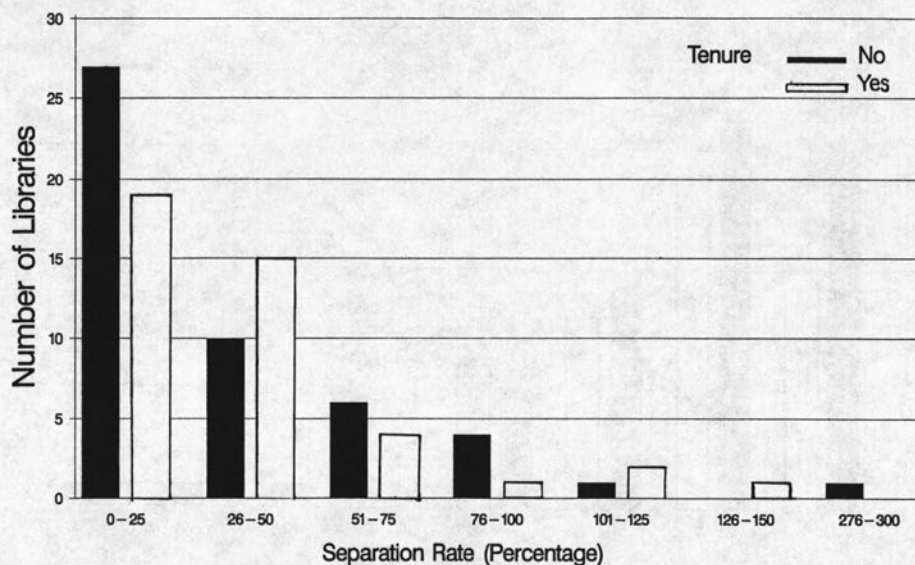


FIGURE 2
Separation Rates

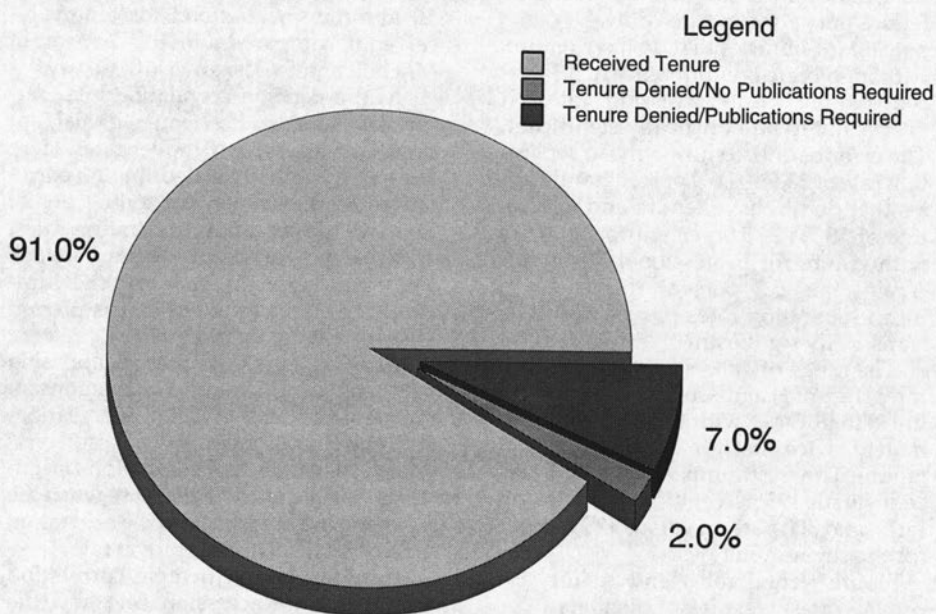


FIGURE 3
Effect of Scholarly Publishing Requirements

- There is a positive correlation between the accession rate and the tenure denial rate.

The weakness of these four correlations may indicate that tenure does not significantly affect the decision to remain in a position.

Finally, tenure approval and denial rates were compared between institutions that required scholarly publishing for tenure and those that did not. The authors did not investigate whether or not the definition of scholarly publishing at each of these academic institutions meant anything in print anywhere or publishing strictly in refereed journals, nor did they investigate whether authorities internal or external to a library applied internal or external standards to determine an acceptable level of publishing. Of the 9 percent of academic librarians denied tenure, 7 percent were at institutions requiring scholarly publishing, and only 2 percent were at institutions that said they had no publishing requirements. This result suggests that scholarly publishing requirements may have some effect on turnover rates and should be more closely investigated. The pie chart (figure 3) illustrates the effect of scholarly publishing on tenure approval.

Requirements for service commitments were examined for their effect on turnover rates. In the interest of keeping this survey brief and exploratory, "service" was not defined. This could include service on a committee or two within the library system itself, service on committees of the academic institution, or service on professional committees at the state, regional, or national levels. This could serve as a topic for further investigation. There was no correlation between tenure and release time, either, as Mitchell and Swieszkowski found.¹⁵

CONCLUSIONS

First, it should be pointed out that colleges and universities generally believe that a certain level of turnover is beneficial to the institution by bringing in fresh ideas and experiences and adding to the diversity of the faculty. Beyond that certain percentage, turnover be-

comes undesirable and negative for the institution. The negative aspects of turnover are the demoralizing effects of constant change, the continual training of new staff, and the lack of continuity. Turnover rates in this survey ranged from 0 percent to 300 percent (achieved by the library filling the same position more than once during the five-year period). It is important for each academic library to know what the turnover rates are for their institution and for their library, and how these rates reflect institutional and library goals.

The negative aspects of turnover are the demoralizing effects of constant change, the continual training of new staff, and the lack of continuity.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the possibility of a correlation between tenure track requirements and turnover rates for academic librarians. The primary conclusion of this study is that having librarians meet tenure track requirements does not significantly increase or decrease the turnover rates for professional staff. In fact, those libraries that had high turnover rates were more likely not to have tenure requirements. It is clear that tenure does not have a significant impact on turnover rates across the profession. When examining tenure rates of professional staff, academic libraries need to consider factors other than tenure requirements. The anticorrelation between the tenure approval rate and the crude turnover rates suggests that the presence of tenure track appointments might contribute to stability and lower turnover in an individual library, rather than cause higher turnover. The authors hope this study will be of use to those libraries contemplating either adopting or discontinuing the tenure track system. It should also help librarians who already work in a tenure environment to have reasonable expectations about the repercussions of tenure. Librarians considering working in a college or university library with

tenure can make more informed decisions about whether they want to work within a tenure system.

The study did not examine turnover rates in terms of library size. Future studies need to examine the impact of tenure on turnover in small libraries versus that in large libraries. Subsequent studies also need to examine the number of tenured librarians who leave as compared with the number of untenured librarians who leave. A study of the number of years that librarians stay in a tenure track position may also prove useful since some libraries use a third year review process to weed out librarians who are not progressing toward tenure.

Several other areas suggest themselves for further research. A survey of the methods that college and university libraries employ to support their professional staff development and to facilitate meeting tenure track requirements

could be of benefit to other libraries. Research into turnover rates for librarians in technical service areas compared to turnover rates for librarians in public services should be pursued. Many technical service departments have quantitative quotas in place, either unofficially or in official guidelines, which may put additional pressures on technical service librarians to perform at both a high quantitative and a high qualitative level. Finally, further exploration is needed concerning the effect that scholarly publishing requirements have on turnover rates. This area seems to be the one most identified with tenure requirements and the one area that provoked the most response, sometimes quite emotional. Some librarians have very strong feelings about research and publication requirements. More objective information on the subject would be desirable.

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**APPENDIX A
SURVEY FORM**

1. Regardless of rank or title, how many permanent professional librarian positions did your institution have at the end of the 1991/92 academic year? _____
2. Did the number of these positions change during the period from the beginning of the 1985/86 academic year through the end of the 1991/92 academic year? _____
If so, what was the change? (increase or decrease and number) _____
3. How many individuals were hired during the above period, excluding temporary appointments? _____
4. How many individuals left during the above period, excluding temporary appointments? _____
5. How many of these individuals leaving did so because of retirement or death? _____

For questions 6, 7 and 9, please answer *yes* or *no*.

6. Do professional librarians have to stand for tenure? _____
If not, please disregard the rest of the questions and return the survey.
7. Aside from job performance, which of these are requirements for tenure?
 - a. Scholarly publishing? _____
Are librarians granted release time to work on research? _____
 - b. Professional or institutional committee and association work, or other service to the profession? _____
 - c. Other? (Please specify) _____
8. How many individuals applied for tenure during this period? _____
 - a. How many obtained tenure, excluding those granted de facto tenure? _____
 - b. How many were denied tenure? _____
9. If your institution conducts exit interviews, has any librarian stated publishing or committee requirements as a reason for leaving? _____

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Shared Academic Library Facilities: The Unknown Form of Library Cooperation

Anthony J. Dedrick

Although cooperative efforts such as interlibrary loan, collection development, and shared databases are well documented in the literature, there is little information available regarding shared academic library facilities. Along with this lack of information is the growing interest in such arrangements. This paper reports the results of a survey of shared facilities and some of the typical organizational and management structures. In addition, the question of which organizational model works best is discussed. In general, the survey found that there are significant cost savings and service enhancements resulting from a shared facility arrangement along with some additional administrative overhead.



Cooperative library efforts have a long history in America and have increased at a rapid rate, particularly since the mid-1960s. One of the oldest and best-known of these efforts was the Joint University Libraries (JUL) of Nashville which began operation in 1938 and continued until 1980 when it became Vanderbilt University Libraries, following an institutional merger. Traditional cooperative efforts such as interlibrary loan, document delivery, collection development, and shared databases are well documented in the literature. However, one type of cooperation is rarely reported. This is the shared academic library facility. The need for a survey is indicated by (1) the lack of information regarding this type of library cooperation, despite the fact that these types of arrangements have been in existence for some time (this survey identified several programs that have been in operation for over twenty years); and (2) the

heightened interest in this type of cooperation as evidenced by the number of inquiries this author has received and by the increase in the literature citations over the last several years regarding shared facilities.

The primary objectives of this study were to identify a core of shared library facilities and to determine if there were any common patterns of development, organizational structures, and concerns. Likewise it was hoped that the study would provide libraries contemplating a shared facility with some information about the organizational and funding arrangements in use and what aspects of joint facility programs have been successful or unsuccessful.

A literature search was conducted back to 1975 and was supplemented with a review of Stenstrom's *Cooperation between Types of Libraries 1940-1968*.¹ The only pertinent literature found was fairly recent. Joseph Lindenfeld's work is a description of six community

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college/public library cooperative ventures.² Susan Anderson's contributions include a survey of Florida joint-use facilities (1988), a follow-up article on that same topic published in 1990 and a short one-page discussion within her contributed chapter to *Academic Libraries in Urban and Metropolitan Areas* in 1992.³⁻⁵ Tom Connole describes a public library/community college arrangement in Colorado while Yvonne Ralston and Adele Oldenburg focus on a general planning process for university and community college joint-use libraries.^{6,7}

The impetus for this particular study came as an outgrowth of a consulting project completed for Edison Community College and the University of South Florida in 1986.⁸ As a part of the project, an attempt was made to identify other shared academic library facilities. A number of institutions, primarily in Florida and Texas, in addition to the Auraria Higher Education Center in Colorado, were identified. This list was then expanded with the assistance of Susan Anderson at St. Petersburg Junior College in 1991 and a series of telephone interviews was completed with the directors of libraries from this composite list. These individuals, in turn, were queried as to any additional shared facility arrangements of which they were aware. This networking process resulted in the final list of institutions surveyed in this study.

OVERVIEW

A twelve-item survey (appendix A) was developed and distributed to the targeted institutions (a list of these institutions is available from the author). Most data reported were taken from information supplied by respondents; this was supplemented as needed by data from the *ALA Directory*, 44th ed., 1991. A number of the surveys were returned with somewhat ambiguous responses. That is, "other" was checked with no explanation, "not applicable" was indicated, or the question was not answered at all. When "other" was marked and an explanation given, those comments were summarized. In retrospect, a num-

ber of the questionnaire items should have been clarified, in particular the item dealing with budgetary status after the shared program was implemented. In particular, it would have been useful to determine if the percentage of the institutional budgets allocated to library services changed after the merger process. Likewise, the number of responses per question item was uneven. Follow-up calls to many of the respondents were made to clarify information; unfortunately the time limits for project completion resulted in some responses remaining unclarified. One joint program arrangement, Valencia Community College, has been dissolved. However, those data were considered important and were included. Despite these limitations, the survey should prove valuable to the profession, particularly in an era of increasing interinstitutional cooperation. Corrections to the data supplied would be appreciated and readers are urged to contact the author if they either participate in a shared library not covered in this survey, have corrections to the data reported, or are aware of other systems not covered.

SURVEY RESULTS

The first two questions dealt with the age of joint services programs and the number of institutions involved in each program. The longevity of the joint services initiatives was the most surprising aspect of this set of responses. The average age of the joint services programs was almost thirteen years (12.96); two of the programs were twenty-four and twenty-five years old; sixteen were ten or more years old; and only five were less than seven years old. The fact that the majority of the programs were over ten years old would seem to indicate that the shared facility concept is a viable one. More than three-fourths of the shared ventures entailed two institutions, although there were four programs involving three institutions and two involving four institutions. In terms of the types of institutions involved in joint use ventures, the most common pattern was a community college and

university or college (typically a university branch campus). There were eleven of these types of arrangements. The next largest group (six programs) consisted of a community college and a public library entity. Two states, Texas and Florida, are clearly the leaders in joint use library ventures (over one-half of the programs reported are located in these two states). A fairly common developmental pattern has been the older, established community college campus which then gets involved in a joint venture with a new or rapidly expanding university branch program. Beyond the two patterns noted above, there is a wide diversity of arrangements: public and school; community college, four-year and university; and community college, university, and public, among others. All but one of the programs involve a community college library. Why community college libraries are so dominant in the joint library area is probably because the community orientation of such institutions results in a shared mission with local public libraries. In addition, the long-established community colleges in Texas and Florida often were on location before branch university campuses or programs were established or expanded.

The fact that the majority of the programs were over ten years old would seem to indicate that the shared facility concept is a viable one.

The management of joint services programs is highly diverse. Thirteen of the programs have one library director, but five of those programs have employees paid by both institutions. Eight programs have separate library directors for each participating institution. In terms of administrative reporting lines, seventeen directors report to one administrative official and six report to an institutional official from each of the participating institutions. Examples of other types of reporting lines include the Roundup Community Library Director who reports to a high school principal

and acts as an adviser to the governing board, and the Mississippi County Library System and College Library Director who reports to a public library board and the college president.

Funding for the joint programs was, like the management structures, highly diverse. This question had the largest number of respondents indicating "other" and reflects the diversity of funding arrangements for joint library ventures. In general, these responses tended to show no consistency from one shared library to another and result from the variances in local situations such as institutional history and the different approaches to library support for the respective institutions. Interestingly enough, there were several respondents who indicated that the library funding was either subject to negotiations annually or was at the discretion of the institutions involved; there was no set policy or agreement. Approximately one-third of the programs were funded by having each institution responsible for specific services. Examples of specific services (or areas of budgetary responsibility) separated by institution include book budget, the technical services operation, and physical facility, including custodial, maintenance, and utilities, and interlibrary loan. Four institutions reported that a percentage of each institution's budget is used as a basis for supporting the library and four utilized numbers of students as a basis for support. In several instances types of funding were combined. That is, the library allocation was based on a percent of the institutional budget, and that amount was applied to specific services or items within the shared library.

Twelve libraries responded that institutional library funding increased once the joint program was established, nine reported that it stayed the same, and five did not supply the information. This pattern would suggest that the concerns raised by several respondents are not valid. That is, a joint program is more efficient and consequently institutions will use that as a pretext for reducing library funding. In retrospect, it would

have been useful to expand this question so that a determination could be made if the increases were routine incremental amounts or if they were additional funds.

Seventy-five percent of the programs responded that some type of separate budget accounting is maintained for each school. The type of accounting/budget practices varied widely. Examples included assigning individual books purchased to separate institutional accounts (driven by source of purchase requests) to maintaining separate budgeting and tracking systems for those specific services paid for by the sister institution—that is, the costs associated with the operation of a particular service would be tracked according to the policies of the institution providing the funds for that service.

In terms of preference for a shared library system versus several, smaller stand-alone institutional library programs, eighteen respondents thought the shared approach was better, while six said that a stand-alone arrangement would be better than their current situation. The narrative responses and comments from this question along with the responses to item 12 ("pluses and minuses of the joint library program") are discussed in the conclusion of this article.

Surprisingly, three of the programs surveyed did not have a written library services agreement. Several did provide copies of the agreements and, again, there was considerable diversity both in terms of content and level of detail.

Item 12 addressed any anticipated substantive change(s) to the program and/or future changes. The responses typically tended to focus on issues such as budgetary concerns, new facility construction, and networking. Interestingly enough, two programs reported that the joint effort will be discontinued once permanent and separate campuses are built for the respective institutions. In both of these cases, the branch university campus was operating out of temporary facilities and, essentially, utilized (and supplemented) the existing, permanent community college facility.

CONCLUSIONS

The final section of this article will summarize what respondents viewed as both the "pluses" and "minuses" of their joint services program, along with additional narrative comments not reported earlier. This section also reflects the observations obtained through numerous follow-up telephone conversations during the course of this survey, the author's eighteen years' experience with a shared facility, and the literature on this topic.

The specific "plus" comments can be grouped into two general categories: costs and services. In terms of costs, the primary advantages reported were:

- Larger acquisitions budget
- Better utilization of staff
- Reduced physical plant costs such as utilities and maintenance
- Elimination of the costs for a new facility
- Better discounts through volume purchasing.

In terms of service, the primary benefits reported were:

- Access to a much larger collection
- Ability to purchase expensive reference materials and products, for example, CD-ROMs
- Expanded hours of service
- Better access to technology such as an online catalog.

Virtually all of the negative comments were focused on the administrative difficulties inherent in a shared library program. These administrative issues tended to fall into the following categories:

- Tracking multiple budgets
- Developing programs and services to meet the needs of separate institutions with different missions and student populations
- Communication difficulties
- Managing staff who operate under two separate payroll systems and institutional personnel policies
- Lack of clarity regarding the amount and value of institutional contributions to the joint program
- For those programs involving an academic institution and a nonacademic program such as a public or school

library, the different focus and types of programs are especially difficult to manage.

As reported earlier, six of the institutions indicated a preference for a stand-alone environment in lieu of their current shared environment. None of the six respondents went into significant detail as to why they preferred a stand-alone system. Three of them gave no reasons whatsoever, one reported that the college used the joint program as a pretext for ignoring library needs, one cited the difficulty in meeting individual campus needs (but did note the shared program was cost-effective), and the last institution made only one negative comment (difficulty in trying to serve two institutions equally) while citing numerous positive aspects of the joint arrangement. None of these respondents indicated a strong preference for a stand-alone system. This is in contrast to the eighteen respondents who preferred the joint-use approach. Over one-half of them were extremely positive in their supplementary comments.

Given the increasingly tight budget situations for most libraries, the cooperative facility alternative should be an increasingly attractive option in the future.

Two clear patterns emerge from this study: (1) the typical shared academic library facility program does provide significant cost savings and service enhancements, and (2) there are inherently additional administrative burdens with these types of arrangements. The question remains, are the additional administrative problems offset by the cost savings and service enhancements? Given the increasingly tight budget situations for most libraries, the cooperative facility alternative should be an increasingly attractive option in the future.

Finally, some partial answers can be deduced from this study relative to which type of organizational model

works best and what issues need to be evaluated by an institution considering a shared facility program. Organizational and funding structures usually are driven by unique local circumstances, including issues of what is politically acceptable, perceived benefits to the participants, historical patterns of cooperation, statutory restrictions and financial need. Consequently, there is no one best model; it is more useful for participants to select whatever arrangement will best fit into their respective institutional environments and best meet their needs. Nonetheless, there are clearly some approaches that require much less administrative overhead than others. An example would be a program such as that at the Auraria Library where all operations, including staff and financial processes, are consolidated and function under one set of institutional rules and regulations (the Auraria Library is part of the University of Colorado at Denver, reports to that institution, and all staff are employees of that institution). This arrangement eliminates the burdensome problem of maintaining dual accounting/reporting structures and managing a staff with dual personnel and payroll structures.

It appears from the study that early detailed planning is critical for an institution contemplating a shared facility. The work done by Ralston and Oldenburg provides an excellent guide for this planning process. Prior to that detailed planning process, it is also essential that the prospective participants see a real value in the proposed program to their respective institutions and that the effort is undertaken with a sense of cooperation and flexibility.

Ultimately, the best sources of information from this study could very well be the contact list of cooperative programs. This group of libraries represents a substantial pool of experience and can provide some insights into the somewhat nebulous, but absolutely critical, issues related to intra-institutional politics and turf that come into play with a shared library facility program.

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APPENDIX A
(Survey Instrument)
Shared Library Survey

Institution(s) _____

Contact Person _____ Title _____ Date _____

Physical Description of Facility: Sq. Ft. _____ Reader Stations _____

Branch Libraries (please list) _____

1. Year the joint library service program was initiated _____
2. How many institutions are involved in your joint use library?
a. 2 b. 3 c. 4 d. 5 or more
3. How is the joint services program managed?
 - a. Staff report to one joint services library director
 - b. Staff report to one joint services library director but are employees of different institution
 - c. Staff report to separate library directors for each participating institution
 - d. Other (please explain)
4. What is the line of administrative authority?
 - a. The library director reports to one institutional official
 - b. The library director reports to an institutional official from each participating institution
 - c. The library director reports to a board
 - d. Other (please explain)

5. If a board exists, what is its function?
 - a. An advisory board with no governing authority
 - b. A governing board with decision-making authority
 - c. No board
 - d. Other (please explain)

6. How is the joint library funded?
 - a. FTE (Full-Time-Equivalent) based
 - b. Head-Count based
 - c. Each institution is responsible for specific services
 - d. Percentage of each institution's budget
 - e. Other (please explain)

7. Did the funding for library services by each institution change after the joint library program was established?
 - a. Increased
 - b. Decreased
 - c. Stayed same

8. Is the joint library budget separated or "tracked" by institution—i.e., a separate acquisitions budget for each school, etc.?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

9. Do you feel that your approach is preferable to several, smaller stand-alone institutional library programs?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

10. Is there a written library services agreement, and, if so, can I obtain a copy?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

11. Would you briefly summarize any anticipated substantive change(s) to the existing program and/or future plans.

12. What are pluses and/or minuses of the joint library program based on your experience to date?

13. Do you wish to have a copy of the survey results sent to you?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

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ACRL/ALA
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Making Academic Reference Services Work

David W. Lewis

Recent discussion of reference service in academic libraries has considered alternative approaches to service and has called on academic reference librarians to play new roles. Absent from most of the discussion is an understanding that organizational changes are required if reference librarians are to accomplish what is being asked of them. Without these organizational changes these new roles and responsibilities will be impossible. To make reference service in academic libraries effective five changes are required: (1) reference librarians must be given clear budgetary and programmatic authority; (2) the hierarchy must be flattened and reference librarians placed closer to the top of the organization; (3) support services must be provided so that reference librarians are not encumbered by nonprofessional tasks; (4) reference librarians should be brought together and not isolated in small departments; and (5) public services planning and priority setting should be done by reference librarians.



he number of articles discussing reference librarians and their roles and functions seems to have increased in the last several years. The topics range from new techniques and styles of reference to the confrontation with technology and staff burnout.¹ I believe this recent discussion is more than the usual navel gazing. Its urgency reflects an understanding that change is required, even if the problems being addressed are not yet clearly defined, and the answers are often platitudes. Such a response is not surprising considering the radical changes that have taken place in library and information technology over the past two decades. As Virginia Massey-Burzio states in explaining the justification for a major shift in approach to reference services at Brandeis University, "Since the mid-1970s, we had been adding more and more services like on-

line searching and bibliographic instruction with little increase in staffing. The introduction of CD-ROM technology caused a bad situation to reach crisis proportions."² The past twenty years have seen the introduction of online searching and OCLC, then OPACs and CD-ROMs. Now reference librarians have cheap access to full-text online databases, same-day document delivery, and the Internet. For many of us, the technological futures we imagined only a few years ago have already come and gone.

Missing from most of this discussion is an understanding that unless organizational structures in academic libraries change, the reference librarians who are being asked to change their behaviors and roles understandably will balk. In many cases, the roles reference librarians are asked to play are incompatible with the way their work lives and their organizations are structured. Too often

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reference librarians lack the incentives to cooperate, to change, and to excel. Sadly, the organizational structures of most academic libraries discourage professionalism. Academic libraries are bureaucratic and top heavy. They stifle initiative. After describing the overwhelming response to a request for proposals for the initial "Apple Library of Tomorrow" grants, Susan Martin comments, "If this response is an indication of thinking and planning, then the fault in the system [the failure to provide innovative services] does not lie with lack of imagination or creativity among librarians."³ It certainly does not. The fault lies with our organizations. What is remarkable is that so many talented and dedicated people battle against these odds to provide good service. In this article I will review the expectations that appropriately are being placed on reference librarians and will look at the organizational changes that are required if reference librarians are to meet these expectations.

BACKGROUND

The recent discussion of reference may be traced back to Thomas Surprenant and Claudia Perry-Holmes' 1985 RQ article "The Reference Librarian of the Future: A Scenario."⁴ Unfortunately, but probably not surprisingly, like much of the subsequent literature the Surprenant and Perry-Holmes article contains more exhortations and generalities than concrete suggestions. Their concluding words, "What is most needed at this critical juncture for librarians is an acceptance of innovation, a willingness to experiment, self-confidence in our abilities and potential, and most of all, a conviction to lead," are typical.⁵ Jerry Campbell concludes his widely discussed article, "Shaking the Conceptual Foundations of Reference: A Perspective," with a similarly sweeping challenge:

I have outlined this new role for what are now our reference colleagues because they are uniquely qualified and situated to assume the role . . . Yet, it is a stronger role than they presently play. If they accept it, it will place upon them a large share of the burden

for creating a viable twenty-first-century library.⁶

Jennifer Cargill's more recent "The Electronic Reference Desk: Reference Service in an Electronic World" continues in the same vein:

Underlying this is the need to know our clients, our constituencies, better. Similarly, we must organize our libraries for the user, not for the librarian. We must organize services to meet the actual information needs, habits, and preferences of patrons—not what librarians think is wanted. We must create the situation whereby librarians can provide the in-depth assistance and knowledge for which they are trained.⁷

Shelia Creth's "The Organization of Collection Development: A Shift in the Organization Paradigm" addresses similar issues.⁸ The authors of the last three articles are directors at ARL libraries, and as such their views may be seen as representing the contemporary administrative view of the role of reference librarians in academic libraries today.

Although each approaches the problem from a different perspective, all three authors stress the need for change. They all are looking for a different way to do reference — a way that is client-based and effectively applies the new electronic tools to increase quality and productivity. Campbell asks that we find a new "economic model."⁹ Cargill suggests that we must "focus and personalize our reference services to meet the needs of our various constituencies more effectively."¹⁰ To do so she suggests that we must "redirect our energies from collection building and bibliographic control to concentration on information management and access."¹¹ Creth suggests that collection development, because it combines concerns for both the user and the sources, "should provide the bridge or link to establish an integrative link in the research library."¹²

Perhaps the most intriguing speculation results from yet another perspective. Michel Bauwens proposes that reference librarians must become both organizationally and technologically

networked. He says, "The proposed model of a strategic network of cybrarians is a way forward for integrating librarians into a network of experts. It requires from us a new attitude, centered on serving our clients, and an openness both to technology and to people, as expressed in the concept of networking."¹³ Unfortunately, Bauwens' proposals are vague and are focused on librarians in industrial and research settings, but his concept is challenging, and his new job title, *cybrarian* is certainly more pleasing than Campbell's *access engineer*.¹⁴

A common theme of the work cited above is that the new role of the reference librarian will be professionally exciting and empowering, but as Tom Peters says at the beginning of his latest book, *Liberation Management*, "I've come to realize that, in this madcap world, turned-on and theoretically empowered people . . . will never amount to a hill of beans in the vertically oriented, staff-driven, thick headquarters corporate structures that still do most of the world's business."¹⁵ Unfortunately, in the library world this truth has generally not been grasped. For instance, in concluding an article on managing emerging technologies, Susan Martin states: "Technological activities will not in themselves require reorganization in the immediate future. After all, thus far, only those applications are being discussed which are direct translations of functions which take place in a traditional structure."¹⁶ Sadly, academic libraries are in general as stifling as the business organizations that Peters studies. What is missing in the exhortations cited above is an understanding that unless the structure of academic libraries changes, the roles that reference librarians need to play will be impossible to achieve.

ASSUMPTIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

I will use the terms *reference services* and *reference librarian* in a broad sense. My concepts include traditional reference desk services, selection and liaison activities, and assume involvement in bibliographic instruction and the implementation of a broad range of electronic

products. Other nomenclature may be more descriptive, but I see no need, at this point, to depart from terms which are widely understood in the profession and the academic community at large. I would rather enhance the meaning of *librarian* and have it take on new meaning than abandon the term.

In considering the roles and organizational structures that must evolve if reference services are to be successful over the next decade, I make the following assumptions:

- Reference librarians will need to balance a broad range of tasks—desk services, consultations, instruction, collection development, and involvement in implementing new technologies.¹⁷ This list of assignments reflects the need to maintain traditional desk and instructional services as well as to add consulting services and program and project development activities, especially with electronic products and services.
- Reference librarians will require a broad generalist's background to deal with a wide range of clients. At the same time subject expertise will become more important. It will be the basis for specialized reference work and liaison relationships with departments, schools, and faculties. Subject expertise and liaison with a client base will become the unifying thread of reference librarian's work.¹⁸
- There will be no significant influxes of new resources. Staffing levels will, at best, remain constant. Increased productivity will be expected and required.
- Library and information technologies will continue to change and evolve. This will require continued investment in equipment and a constant renewal of skills. These investments will, when wisely made, produce powerful and effective information tools.¹⁹
- Campus networks will expand and many significant information resources will be made available over these networks. These resources will be developed locally and purchased from vendors. They will be available on machines in the library, elsewhere

on campus, and at other locations around the world. An important task for reference librarians will be integrating these resources and making them useful and convenient for client groups.

- Despite the presence of expanding networks, the level of use and demand for materials and services in the library building will continue at current levels, at minimum.
- Library users will be more diverse in the experience, expertise, and background.

Reference librarians can be expected to be anxious and ambivalent when considering their future prospects.

- There will be continued attempts to automate the reference desk function—Campbell calls for 75 percent of all questions to be answered through the use of technology—and to develop ways of using less highly trained staff.^{20,21} The desk function will be modified and supplemented, but the provision of assistance to users in the library will remain an important part of what reference librarians do.²²
- The constant change in technologies will mean that demand for instruction in the use of the library's resources and services will continue to grow. Faculty expectations of the library will be outdated or unrealistic in many cases. Thus, meshing the library's capabilities with the curriculum will be a continuing challenge.²³

The combined effect of these forces will be demanding, if not overwhelming, and while technology will offer some relief, achieving the possible benefits will require short-term investments of time, energy, and money that may prove difficult to generate.

In addition, there are easy to imagine and widely heralded futures in which the library and the librarian are absent, replaced with smiling machines and software agents. Reference librarians can be expected to be anxious and am-

bivalent when considering their future prospects. In 1980 Brian Nielsen documented similar concerns in his article "Online Bibliographic Searching and the Deprofessionalization of Librarianship," so at least this situation is familiar.²⁴ Despite legitimate preoccupations about the future and expanding demands, reference librarians will be more productive. Using new tools, they will be able quickly to provide library users with information that only a few years ago would have taken hours or even days to ferret out. They may feel fatigued, but will be satisfied professionally as they speculate about whether or not they have a future.

EXISTING ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

Too often, when librarians, especially library administrators, think about the organizational structures of libraries, they agree with Beverly Lynch:

Libraries are Bureaucracies. The bureaucratic elements which critics identify have their sources, not in the red tape or pettiness of officials, but in the attempt of the library to control its environment. The elements of bureaucracy emerge from its attempt to ensure its efficiency and its competency and from its attempt to minimize the impact of outside influences. Although variations will exist in the bureaucratic conditions, libraries will remain bureaucratic in form.²⁵

In an article on conflict in academic libraries, William Pettas and Steven Gililand cite arguments similar to Lynch's and laud the stability and continuity provided by bureaucracies: "The implication of bureaucratic efficiency, however, is *not* that there is a lack of conflict in reaching desired objectives; rather, the implication is that methods of resolving or lessening conflict are inherent in the bureaucratic structure. [*Italics in the original.*]"²⁶ In other words, the bureaucratic structures in libraries will work if they are used correctly.

While many have been slow to recognize the full implications, circumstances have changed and the advantages of bu-

reaucratic structures are no longer so compelling. Lewis Perelman, in his critique of American education, states the case boldly:

The decontrol of knowledge therefore inevitably must drain the lifeblood from bureaucracy. Information technology that diffuses and disperses the creation and communication of knowledge assaults the genetic program, the very DNA of bureaucracy, in a way that is ultimately indefensible The more an organization or institution attempts to join the information revolution, the more the technology itself will break down the internal bureaucracy until the organization either becomes ungovernable, and breaks apart, or flips into a new, viable, but nonbureaucratic form of governance.²⁷

What has become increasingly clear is how deeply the prevailing hierarchical and bureaucratic structures are entrenched in academic libraries.

If we believe our own propaganda, academic libraries are in the vanguard of the information revolution. As such, we should not expect to escape the organizational changes predicted by Perelman. Most academic libraries have automated their record structures and can now relax the tight controls necessary when standardized manual tasks were used to manage huge paper files. For many years the failure of bureaucratic structures to integrate and coordinate across functions has led to task forces and committees in such numbers that committee participation is a significant part of most academic librarians' jobs. This is an overhead academic libraries can no longer afford.

To date, there have been some small modifications in the established ways academic libraries do business, but despite calls for more radical approaches, such as the use of matrix organizations, parallel structures, quality circles, or

teams, little has changed.^{28,29} Most academic libraries remain hierarchical and bureaucratic, discretion and authority are closely held by administrators, and front-line librarians mix high-level professional work with routine tasks. Unfortunately, as Charles Martell points out, "In libraries, the desire to protect power and control within the organization may lead some major stakeholders to ignore or minimize the needs of external constituencies."³⁰ He goes on, "Changes in the design of academic libraries are probably necessary if significant improvements are to occur in the organizational/environmental fit. These changes would quite naturally include the organizational structure."³¹

ALTERNATIVE STRUCTURES

In response to the bureaucratic reality, the concept of a client-centered academic library was developed some years ago.³² The most lucid expression of this model is Martell's *Client-Centered Academic Library*.³³ He proposed teams of three to five librarians with several support staff, and suggested that these groups would provide advanced reference, collection development, instruction, and original cataloging in a specific area or discipline. Martell's organizational chart shows these groups reporting through a governing council to the library director.³⁴ As Martell notes, his proposals are organizationally similar to those made by Booz, Allen & Hamilton, Inc. for the Columbia University Library in the early 1970s.³⁵ This model was not generally applied for several good reasons. First, the overwhelming day-to-day demands of undergraduate students in the library and at the reference desk were difficult to reconcile with the less numerous, but more sophisticated and politically significant, demands of faculty. The client-centered model's implicit assumption—which I believe to be incorrect—was that the level of the individual making a query and the skills required to respond to it were directly related. Expert librarians would address the needs of faculty and advanced researchers and less skilled

staff would deal with freshmen. Secondly, it generally has not been possible to coordinate the subject specific tasks in technical and public services, probably because the functional skills required to do advanced reference and to do original cataloging have both been changing rapidly.

Some years ago I suggested an organizational paradigm for academic libraries.³⁶ At that time I suggested that academic libraries should become professional bureaucracies. A professional bureaucracy, as I described it:

relies for coordination on the standardization and high level skills of its operators [librarians], and many decisions, both operational and strategic, are made by these operators. Professional bureaucracies tend to be decentralized and democratic for the professionals in the operating core. Because of this decentralization there is a small middle line and large spans of control. The technostucture is also small because many of its tasks are performed by the professional operators. The support staff, on the other hand, tends to be large in order to give the professionals as much aid as possible. The strategic apex often does not so much supervise the operating core as provide a link to the broader environment.³⁷

The central issue, as I saw it then, was to create an organization that could balance the autonomy and discretion required to innovate and the coordination and commonality of purpose required to focus this innovation on a shared goal. The theory laid out in this article seems to remain sound. What has become increasingly clear is how deeply the prevailing hierarchical and bureaucratic structures are entrenched in academic libraries. Despite well-intentioned calls, like those cited above, for changes in the roles of reference librarians, I am firmly convinced that no fundamental change will come about until we transform the organizational structure of academic libraries. Lynch identifies the need for libraries to coordinate and to control tasks to ensure efficiency and competency. What we neglect when we heed this call is the

stifling effect of the controlling and coordinating mechanisms on our service goals.

Service organizations must be reactive and responsive to their clients. For libraries to become effective service organizations they should create a climate in which professionalism, especially among reference librarians, can flourish. If reference librarians are going to innovate and apply technology effectively, if they are going to restructure the library so that it meets its clients needs, and if they are going to be the library's representatives to significant portions of the academic community, then they must occupy a new place in the library's organizational structure. Academic libraries must move away from a concern for control and must place a strong emphasis on the need to allow truly professional practice and innovation. When in doubt, reference librarians should be set free to do what they think must be done. The organizational structures of most libraries are not effective in today's environment. In the environment they will face tomorrow, they will fail completely.

WHAT MUST HAPPEN

An effective academic library should look like a law firm or an advertising agency. It should become a professional bureaucracy. Peters paints a picture of the effective organization as a lean, flexible, client-based, team-centered organization responsive both to its customers and to changes in technology. These organizations, Peters argues, must get close to markets and be small enough to shift focus quickly. He discusses the "four ephemerals"—"ephemeral 'organizations' . . . joined in ephemeral combinations . . . producing ephemeral products . . . for ephemeral markets . . . FAST."³⁸ Does this sound like your library? These are our circumstances. They require a focus on serving users and on quickly developing user-based services and programs, and then changing them when the sources or the client groups change. If academic libraries are to become client-centered, they must de-

velop a variety of services and ways of delivering them. There are, after all, many clients, and the whole point of focusing their needs is to provide services to them in a way they find useful and convenient. We need to change our way of thinking. Rather than trying to find the one way of doing business that serves most people well, we need to provide mechanisms that allow us to develop many different ways to serve many niche groups.

Reference librarians can and should do this work and as such are quickly becoming the library's most valuable resource. This central truth needs to be recognized. To maximize the effectiveness of reference librarians, five things must happen:

1. Reference librarians must be given clear budgetary and programmatic authority.
2. The hierarchy must be flattened and reference librarians placed closer to the top of the organization.
3. Support services must be provided so that reference librarians are not encumbered by nonprofessional tasks.
4. Reference librarians should be brought together and not isolated in small departments.
5. Public services planning and priority setting should be done by reference librarians.

Give Reference Librarians Authority

Reference librarians need to become the library's customer service representatives and product developers. To play this role they will need to have authority and autonomy. This is the key issue: authority does not mean consultation; authority means the ability to make decisions.

There are two important authorities. The first is the authority to speak for the library. Reference librarians must be able to commit to the development or modification of programs to meet the specific needs of a client group. To do this, reference librarians need to be knowledgeable about the library's affairs. They

need to be kept fully aware of budget and policy decisions.

A second authority is also essential—the authority to spend money. While the authority to select books is common, this is the limit of financial discretion that is allowed most reference librarians. In many cases, especially in response to escalating prices and budget constraints, even journal subscription decisions are made at a higher level. Equipment and software are generally requested by department heads and allocated annually by senior administrators. Coordination, continuity, and budget control, especially in these times of declining resources, are used to justify these practices. These values are no longer the most important. More important is the need to match an ever-changing client group to an ever changing set of information services and products. A centrally administered budget with tightly held fiscal discretion is not capable of this. This approach creates disincentives and encourages behaviors that make doing more with less impossible. Individual librarians and departments need to be given budget allocations, and they need to be able to spend the money as they see fit. Only at this level is it possible to determine what is actually needed and what can be eliminated. This does not imply that there would be no accountability; rather, it means that both discretion and accountability should be passed down.

Flatten the Hierarchy

The need to flatten the hierarchy in academic libraries goes beyond the commonly cited issue of communication. Pettas and Gilliland state the usual argument, "The multiple layers of management within a large library may hinder communication of organizational objectives and the intent of policies and procedures."³⁹ But after explaining that most libraries are relatively small organizations that have hierarchies comparable to much larger organizations, they go on to justify the hierarchy by suggesting that the coordination will be difficult and that managers will experience greater demands and stress if their

span of control is too large.⁴⁰ Though common, this view is mistaken.

Flattening the hierarchy is essential if reference librarians are to be effective. Regardless of how much responsibility has been assigned theoretically, if a reference librarian reports to someone who reports to someone who reports to the director, that librarian cannot make important decisions.⁴¹ That librarian cannot authoritatively represent the library to faculty who have an open door to the director three levels up in the organization. In this situation faculty, who know where the power lies, will take their concerns to a higher level and leave the reference librarian to deal with trivial concerns.

Whatever support services the library director enjoys should be available to all reference librarians.

It is my view that reference librarians should have no more than one manager between them and the library director. This should be possible in even large ARL libraries. This manager should serve as a managing partner rather than as a supervisor, and as such should be concerned with managing decision-making processes and communication, coordinating resource allocations, and coordinating of support services. Management of major reference programs such as instruction and desk services should be shared or rotated. Task teams should be used to establish new programs or services. Spans of control should be six to ten people.

Provide Support Services

There is a simple test. Whatever support services the library director enjoys should be available to all reference librarians. They should have full secretarial support, their telephones should be answered, their mail screened, and routine correspondence and reports should be handled by support staff. In addition, special services, such as desk top publishing, should be available and there should be support for maintaining and developing technologies.

I suspect that there is little theoretical disagreement with this position; rather, financial constraints will be cited as an excuse for not providing these levels of support. What should be understood is that reference departments are better off, if there is no other choice, trading a reference librarian for an administrative assistant. Seven reference librarians and an administrative assistant will be more productive than eight reference librarians who do their own clerical work.

A related issue is training. Reference librarians will need new skills, and libraries should expect to provide incentives and support for training. This will be different from the usual professional development support that consists of attending conferences and one-day workshops. Something more substantial is required. Libraries should provide support for courses and degrees. The aim must be the acquisition of new technical proficiencies. This will require additional continued investment in human resources.

Bring Reference Librarians Together

Bringing reference librarians together physically may seem at odds with the notion of putting them in touch with their clients who are spread out all over campus, but this is not so.⁴² Bringing reference staff together provides several benefits. First, the provision of support services is easier and more efficient if staff are clustered together. Second, proximity provides for the informal interactions that lead to a common sense of purpose and make working cooperatively easier. Finally, by creating large departments, the organization is flattened.

The consolidation of service points into larger operations makes it possible to use staff more efficiently. As noted above, there is and will continue to be a tension between the need to meet the day-to-day demands of large numbers of undergraduates and the need to develop and implement new sophisticated services. A tension between the general and process skill required to deal with beginning students and the subject expertise required to assist faculty and re-

searchers will remain. The resources needed to provide high-level, sophisticated, and individualized assistance to everyone who walks in the door do not exist. Bringing reference staff together and consolidating service points makes it easier to mix staff and to maximize the effectiveness of available resources. The easiest consolidation is to integrate information desks and documents service points with general reference desks. Special or subject services points, especially inside a central building, should be eliminated.

Planning

While the need to develop and maintain the professional discretion of reference librarians should remain paramount, there is a legitimate concern that unbridled and uncoordinated professional discretion will lead to chaos and people working at cross-purposes. To assure that the authority reference librarians should have is channelled toward a common goal will require a formal and serious planning process. This process ought to decide issues such as the balance between desk services and instruction or consultation services. It should formulate strategies for pursuing all aspects of the library's public services program. It should decide what the electronic product mix will be for the coming year—which new services will be developed and which will be dropped. In my experience, this is a several-day process requiring the active participation of all of the reference librarians. It also requires preparation and follow-through. It is a time-consuming but essential activity.

The important difference between what needs to happen and most library planning is that the decisions taken will be implemented and substantial resources, both dollars and staff, will be put on the table. The result must be implementable plans, not recommendations to the library's administration. If such planning is to be effective, all reference librarians will need to develop analytic and group process skills. Over time an effective planning process should encourage a sense of common

purpose and trust between individual professionals. When this happens, the library will begin to become an effective organization.

IMPLEMENTATION

As libraries adapt to the revolution in information technology and develop organizational structures to take advantage of these changes, reference services will become the primary function of the academic library, and reference librarians, if they are effective, will become the libraries' most valuable resource, more valuable even than the collection. This is a revolutionary change. The library will become an institution centered on its human resources.

To assure that the authority reference librarians should have is channelled toward a common goal will require a formal and serious planning process.

This revolution will require a radical departure from the generally accepted view that public and technical services are equally important and should receive roughly equal levels of support. I suggest that this apparently balanced view will lead to a misallocation of resources. Library administrators should be doing everything in their power to push the inevitable trend of streamlining and outsourcing technical services operations. It is clear that large external organizations can be significantly more efficient than most libraries in providing technical services. It is useful to compare the average cost of cataloging, easily in excess of \$30 per title in most libraries, with costs available from outside vendors such as OCLC.⁴³ Funds saved by streamlining technical services should be put into reference staff and the support they need to operate effectively.

It also will be critical for reference librarians to accept the challenge that this model presents. If they are comfortable waiting behind a desk for the world to come to them, if they are not willing to change their ways of working so that

they become more productive, then they will deserve their fate. Reference librarians will need to develop new roles because the functional skills that might have given them professional status a few years ago, such as online searching skills, are now taught to junior high school students. Reference librarians need to see themselves as technology transfer agents, as the catalysts of the information revolution. They sit at the locus between students and faculty and the rapidly changing information technology. It is a unique position that combines a knowledge of what is possible and what is required.

This is not a role for the comfortable and the contented. Those reference librarians who do not accept the challenge will be left behind. A decade ago Brian Nielsen considered the conflict between the reference librarian as teacher and the

reference librarian as intermediary. He suggested that neither model was adequate and urged that reference librarians move away from the classic professional model that places users in a dependency relationship.⁴⁴ A key assumption of the above analysis is that creating client-based services requires reference librarians to do as Nielsen asked. The current information technology allows, and even encourages, individuals to use the tools without intermediaries. What is required is someone to shape the tools to the particular needs of user groups. I believe reference librarians have an opportunity to achieve the new role Nielsen envisioned. But they can do so only if academic libraries are structured appropriately. Without organizational changes exhortations, no matter how challenging, will have little effect.

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Research Notes

Reference Service and Bounded Rationality: Helping Students with Research

Felix T. Chu

In university library reference service librarians often get ambiguous questions to which they try to give appropriate answers. Because of limitations on resources, time, mental capability for information processing, and other factors, the decision-making process involved in answering a reference question becomes bounded by the rationality of these constraints. Entering into this process is the ambiguous nature of good and acceptable answers according to students. This paper is based on Herbert Simon's ideas on bounded rationality and fuzzy sets as discussed by L. A. Zadeh.

The quality of reference service has been a concern of librarians for many years. Carefully crafted studies can help practicing librarians improve services and help administrators in allocating funds and justifying budget requests to university administration. To that end, there has been a preference for objective studies. In examining the accuracy of reference service, Kenneth Crews has given an overview of existing studies.¹ In calling for further studies to examine the effects of using more variables, it may become possible to predict more accurately the quality of service.² However, another recent study by Jo Bell Whitlatch has raised questions about the scope of existing studies such as those based on unobtrusive testing.³ She says

unobtrusive testing seems too narrowly focused to measure the range of reference services and cautions librarians not to let available methodology dictate the types of evaluation. Whitlatch urges introspection of reference librarians about the reference process so that they may examine and identify variables that help explain quality service while they wait for more sophisticated studies that use a greater variety of evaluation methods.⁴

One area that merits closer examination involves the assumptions of reference service. An existing premise is that there is a single correct answer for a reference question. The quality of reference service as measured by unobtrusive testing studies, for example, is based on the supposed accuracy of the answer. However, there may be multiple

answers that are acceptable and equally accurate. In order to measure the quality of reference service, one must find out what to measure and how to measure. Part of the *what* involves a better understanding of the process of decision making involved in how to answer reference questions. It is only when the process (doing reference) is improved that the final product (the answer) can be improved. Some of the variables in the process that may influence the quality of reference service are explored below.

THE REFERENCE SETTING

One of the jobs for a reference librarian at an academic library is to help students find information for their course work. This may be as simple as finding the mailing address in Washington, D.C., of United States Senators from Illinois or as complex as finding research materials for a paper on variables that influence the success of United States exports in South America. The former case is a clearly defined question for which only one answer will suffice. In the latter case, several factors influence the decisions as to what constitutes usable materials. Relevant materials may span several disciplines such as economics, political science, and history. They may also be written in Spanish or Portuguese and assume an understanding of local cultures and practices in specific countries such as Argentina or Brazil. Other factors include ambiguous understanding of terms such as *success*. Thus, relevancy of many of the variables is problematic.

ISSUES OF RATIONALITY

Herbert Simon has used the phrase *bounded rationality* to describe the limitations on rationality.⁵ In explaining his ideas through playing chess, he said that a player never really considers every possible move before choosing the next one. Given the time and human capacity, it is simply not possible, especially if one tries to extrapolate to future moves. A beginning player may only see a few moves and choose on that basis. A more experienced player may not consider many more moves, but in the process

may visualize several moves ahead based on the pattern of the pieces on the board. Instead of looking at individual pieces, such a player looks at the makeup of the board after successive moves. The choice is not based on all possible moves but only on a subset of possible moves being considered. The choice will then be a *satisficing*—a Scottish term meaning “good enough”—move.⁶ Thus the alternative chosen is satisfactory based on the limited rationality of the player.

One must also keep in mind that not all relevant materials are usable for a particular student.

In the lecture delivered when he accepted the Nobel Prize in Economic Science in 1978, Simon further postulated that the satisficing decision is based on the aspiration level of the decision maker, given the limitations on rationality.⁷ It is not that one should not aspire to a higher level. But in a given circumstance, librarians, limited by their rationality such as constraints of time and memory, provide answers that are sufficiently good in those instances for them and the students.

Librarians often must make decisions based on incomplete information about issues that are not well understood. Robert Taylor describes this as one person (the librarian) trying to find out what another (the patron) wants to know but cannot describe precisely.⁸ According to the classic understanding of rationality in decision making, one would consider all possibilities, calculate the cost of using each choice and the benefits to be gained in each case, and then choose the best one. Calculations of cost and benefit should be taken in a broader sense to mean more than expenditures of money and time, and knowledge gained in this instance. Benefits should also include understanding the process through which knowledge and experience are increased and broadening of one's knowledge base so that these gains may be used later.

However, there are many limitations on rationality. Foremost are the limitations on the resources at a given library and the time available for searching for relevant materials. One must also keep in mind that not all relevant materials are usable for a particular student. Those materials that assume a solid understanding of the basics in a field or that use advanced research methodology or statistics are not useful to the freshman though they may be helpful to the graduate student.⁹ Nor is it possible to calculate accurately the cost associated with making some of the choices together with the return on making those choices since one's mental capability is limited. It is hard to predict whether the value of the information that one finds will outweigh the time and energy spent tracking it down; nor is it possible to know the existence of all relevant materials that have been published or even all materials at one's own library. Thus, one has incomplete knowledge of not only available information but alternative methods of access.

Sometimes, when librarians and students don't understand each other, it becomes a process of expanding the bounds of rationality until the librarian's fuzzy set of satisfactory answers and the student's fuzzy set of acceptable answers overlap.

Reference librarians answer their interpretation of the question based on a context bounded by their knowledge and experiences. Similar to the chess example above, an experienced reference librarian does not consider each journal index as a separate item but may consider classes of indexes as patterns to answer certain types of questions. The number of items or chunks that can be remembered is relatively constant among inexperienced persons and experts.¹⁰ A student may attribute one title to a chunk whereas an experienced librarian may attribute a group name representing many related titles to one

chunk. Thus, instead of considering *Education Index*, *Current Index to Journals in Education* and *Resources in Education* as three distinct titles, librarians may take them as one chunk to answer questions dealing with education.

This also means that a satisfying answer to a freshman may not be good enough for a graduate student working on a thesis. It is possible for two students in the same class to need two different satisfactory answers. In one instance involving the author, for example, one student asked for material on the yearly percentage increase in a certain category of the population. All that could readily be found at the time were yearly totals. That was minimally satisfactory for the author because the end product involved performing some calculations, whereas the actual percentages are available in other sources. But to that student, the answer was good enough. He sat down with his calculator and did the necessary work to arrive at the percentages. For another student working on the same assignment, that was not good enough because he could not visualize the process. This is knowledge gained from talking to the student. The "good enough" answers cover a whole range of alternatives whose quality is situation-dependent. It also becomes obvious that there is a whole set of acceptable answers for students. As with good chess players, librarians see patterns in information that may not be apparent to a student. With an understanding of the infrastructure of information, librarians act on patterns that students may not be able to follow. In order to arrive at an appropriate answer, sometimes librarians need to negotiate with the student.

To summarize, the student does not go through all possible ways to phrase a question rationally nor does the librarian rationally pick the best answer. In the reference process, the two participants try to elucidate their frameworks and try to merge the two. A successful answer is when the two come to a common understanding. In the example above involving population increase, the author was able to explain the process of calculation

to the second student, which took far less time than it would have taken to trace the necessary steps in locating the actual percentages.

FUZZY SETS

It is apparent from the scenario examined above that there is not a single answer nor a precise number of correct answers. The number of "good enough" answers really depends on the rationality of an individual.¹¹ At this time it is appropriate to bring up the concept of fuzzy sets introduced by Zadeh.¹² Fuzzy sets are those sets with ambiguous criteria of membership. In a normal or crisp set, the membership is bivalent. One element is either a member of the set or not. For example, if the set is comprised of students registered for a particular class, then any student who is registered is a member of the set, and any student who is not does not belong to that set. When a student asks for factual information such as addresses of state senators from Illinois, only those addresses would be satisfactory, although sources used may vary for different librarians. However, when the set is comprised of tall librarians, without an accompanying definition of tall, then membership becomes problematic, depending on the understanding of the observer. In this case, membership may range from "0" to "1" on a continuum with "0" meaning not in and "1" meaning in, depending on the likelihood of a librarian being considered tall. This is the nature of the question when a student needs to find background information leading to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. There is no crisp set of documents or sources that will address the question because students will approach the question with a set of assumptions based on their previous knowledge and feelings. There is only a set of satisficing materials that will help in answering the question. Again, the set of relevant documents for one person may not be the same as the set of relevant documents for another person. As Bart Kosko said, "The world is gray but sci-

ence is black and white."¹³ Thus, relevance in the real world is gray and depends on the individual case when we do not know the user's assumptions.

Similar examples may be a set of useful or extremely useful information sources to address a need. The word *extremely* in the above example is what Zadeh calls a linguistic hedge.¹⁴ The degree to which it enhances the accompanying adjective depends on interpretation of the person using it. In this sense, "good enough" may range from minimally useful to a perfect fit to the reference question. As illustrated above in the reference setting, reference librarians are dealing with a set consisting of the range of satisfactory answers that can be offered by a librarian, and a set of acceptable solutions according to a student. It is only when these two fuzzy sets—bounded by their respective rationalities—intersect that there is a mutually satisfactory solution to the problem.

CONCLUSION

The examples presented above constitute a brief look at problems encountered in helping students do research. In most cases, reference librarians know what the students want and can help them find the information. Sometimes, when librarians and students don't understand each other, it becomes a process of expanding the bounds of rationality until the librarian's fuzzy set of satisfactory answers and the student's fuzzy set of acceptable answers overlap. Then there is a solution. We must realize that, depending on the reference question, there may be more than one answer considered satisficing. The usefulness of the answer also depends on the rationality of the student.

ISSUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In examining the quality of reference service, it is not enough to improve the accuracy in measuring the measurable with the basic assumption that there is a best or only answer. In view of the salience of bounded rationality in decision making, it seems advisable that librarians approach measurements care-

fully in evaluating the quality of reference service. It is the process that must be better understood in order to improve the quality of services. Data for further research can be gathered through field observation, recordings of reference negotiations on audiotape or videotape,

and focused interviews of librarians and patrons. The data may then be analyzed to generate grounded theories to better understand the process. With better understanding, librarians may find more relevant variables that can be measured.

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Book Reviews

Guide to Technical Services Resources.

Ed. Peggy Johnson. Chicago: ALA, 1994. 313p. \$60 (ISBN 0-8389-0624-9).

At first glance this book appears to be a very large, perhaps overwhelming bibliography of material about the technical services. Its structure and content contrive to provide something else entirely—a workable guide to the most current sources for a wide range of library and information activities. While acknowledging important differences, the introduction to this volume cites the *Guide to Reference Books* as a model, a work that generations of reference librarians have turned to for guidance in identifying the best current sources. This new book is intended to provide a parallel function with the information needed to develop and organize library collections. Its orientation is functional. It is not a literature review: it is neither exhaustive nor retrospective. The arrangement and annotations set the citations in a useful context. Sources across various fields and formats are well integrated to better support their use.

All the major traditional technical services activities are covered: acquisitions, cataloging (including copy cataloging), subject analysis, serials, collection management and preservation. Sections are also provided for smaller and for newer areas: authority control, filing and indexing, reproduction of library materials, and access services (including circulation). Marginal areas of interest are also included, for example, short lists of sources on problem patrons in relation to access services and fund-raising as an aspect of collection development finance. A separate chapter is provided for each major area of technical services. Within each the sources are presented from general to specific, moving from

guides, dictionaries, and periodicals to specialized topics and specific formats. Brief essays introduce the scope and context of each chapter and major section. A preliminary chapter covers sources that provide an overview of the technical services. This includes material on technical services administration such as decision making, costs, and a special section on expert systems.

Brief descriptive annotations are provided for each item with emphasis on its use. Addresses and other contact information are given for organizations and vendors of bibliographic services. For electronic discussion groups, computer network addresses and subscription instructions are included. In one case a fax number is provided for obtaining updated status on a NISO standard. Various formats are included as appropriate, such as the video recording *Slow Fires* in the chapter on preservation. Frequent reference is made to professional associations, conferences, ongoing periodical columns, and e-mail lists as the most current sources of relevant information. Traditional library-oriented publications are brought together with new sources of expertise such as an Arpanet contact for Project SMART, which experiments with automatic methods for text analysis.

A high degree of currency is reflected in every aspect of this book. Nevertheless some information given will be rapidly outdated. Supplements and cumulations to update the present edition are projected. Guidance is given for obtaining current information through newsletters, discussion groups, and electronic communication. In addition to an author-title index, there is a subject index which effectively brings together related items from across the chapters

for topics such as academic libraries and research libraries. Internal cross-references are also provided for items cited in more than one chapter.

This guide constitutes a valuable resource for practicing information professionals not only in the technical services but also in library administration and bibliographic systems. Initially the notion of a technical services parallel to the *Guide to Reference Books* appears artificial and arbitrary. However the implications are tantalizing. Perhaps only time will tell whether the *Guide to Technical Services Resources* has the capacity to fill the niche it attempts to create. The imagination found in its creative solutions for bringing a measure of order to a dynamic, interdisciplinary body of knowledge is heartening.—J. Brad Young, *University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia*.

The Black Librarian in America Revisited.

Ed. E. J. Josey. Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow, 1994. 382p. (ISBN 0-8108-2830-0).

When University of Pennsylvania law professor Lani Guinier withdrew her nomination for assistant attorney general for civil rights, she called on all Americans to recognize the importance of a "public dialogue on race in which all perspectives are represented and in which no one viewpoint monopolizes, distorts, caricatures, or shapes the outcome." E. J. Josey similarly challenges librarianship in *The Black Librarian in America Revisited*, a new collection of essays by a range of African American voices in the library and information science community representing different generations, work environments, and geographical regions. What ties these essays together is the theme of race and profession in the 1990s.

This new volume does not displace its predecessor, *The Black Librarian in America* (1970), or a companion volume to the original work, entitled *What the Black Librarians Are Saying* (1972). In fact many of the essays here represent the work of a generation of African Americans who were inspired by the original collections to enter the fields of library and information science. And they are an impressive

group: administrators, faculty, and front-line librarians and allied information professionals in industry, colleges and universities, government, and in public libraries serving large and small communities. It is sobering to realize that the enduring racism in American society and among professions makes it necessary to revisit many of the same issues more than twenty years later.

Stories of professional success seem to be among the most vibrant of the essays with some authors using narrative approaches to relate the individual self to both community and profession. Examples are the essays by Mary Lenox and Marva DeLoach, who use autobiography as a vehicle for understanding their educational choices and their experiences on campuses, in communities, and in professional associations and the impact of these on their careers. Vivian Hewitt reveals how personal drive and resilience formed the basis for her election as president of the Special Libraries Association and as a leader in improving the climate for African Americans in special libraries. Casper Jordan's essay on the career of Virginia Lacy Jones transcends the boundaries of the biographical sketch as he reconstructs her life as a library and information science educator who, through a commitment to razing racial barriers, "worked untiringly to make librarianship a better profession for all."

Of particular interest is the section "From Academia," which is the most cohesive of the entire collection. Jessie C. Smith returns to her theory of the "four cultures," an idea inspired by C. P. Snow that she explored in the earlier volume. Smith's four cultures—as a librarian, woman, African American, and southerner—create a web of gender, race, professional, and geographical identity that becomes a framework for understanding the nexus of personal and professional worldviews that shaped her career as an academic librarian. It is also a framework for getting the most from the essays that follow, particularly the juxtaposition between the essays of a library dean at a historically black col-

lege and her counterpart at an ARL institution. Despite differences between these institutions, the authors share concerns about negotiating with their environments, facing organizational and technological change, and recruiting and mentoring the next generation of librarians.

While the essays collected here are well written, and the collection as a whole is worth reading, there are several shortcomings. Although individual essayists have supported their arguments with appropriate data, more comparative and longitudinal empirical evidence on African Americans and librarianship might have served to reinforce the key ideas of the volume. Also, because it is organized around environment or type of library, issues and questions surrounding collection development, information technologies, and theoretical questions of intellectual freedom are not as fully developed as they might have been. This shortcoming is particularly significant for academic librarians, given the primacy of these issues for colleges and universities in the remainder of this decade. Finally, more attention should have been given to librarianship in school systems, particularly with the emergence of early intervention as a focal point for an ongoing discussion about quality and outcomes.

Despite these shortcomings, Josey has done a commendable job in bringing the questions of race and profession back to librarianship. Perhaps this volume will inspire a new generation of African American librarians. One also hopes that it will help reinvigorate the public dialogue over race and profession.—*William Welburn, University of Iowa, Iowa City.*

Designing Information: New Roles for Librarians. Ed. Linda C. Smith and Prudence W. Dalrymple. Urbana-Champaign, Ill.: Graduate School of Library and Information Science, 1993. 222p. \$25.

This volume contains the proceedings of the 1992 Clinic on Library Applications of Data Processing, held April 5-7, 1992, and sponsored by the Graduate School of Library and Information Science

at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. In her summary of this clinic M. E. L. Jacob writes that its goal was to explore "current state-of-the-art technology," as it relates to librarians' roles as information managers and designers of information systems. The papers presented in the clinic fall into four basic categories: (1) concept statements attempting to define emerging areas of information or knowledge management; (2) descriptions of local solutions to information provision and management in a networked environment; (3) papers on designing information for presentation in online systems, specifically through screen design and the heuristic structuring of information for easy navigation by means of hypertext applications; and (4) papers focusing on some of the policy implications of providing public access to what has become known as the "information superhighway."

This volume seeks to advance the notion that librarians have a significant, perhaps even defining, role to play in structuring and designing new approaches to managing digital, online information. The combination of theoretical models, practical design considerations, and examples taken from the field is also surely meant to act both as a handbook and as encouragement to other library professionals. The breadth of the exposition of problems and solutions, from large academic libraries (as exemplified in the papers by Virginia Tiefel and Timothy Cole et al.) through the public library (Jean Polly) to the school library (David Loertscher), is likewise meant to offer "breakthrough" examples of the modern librarian as information designer and knowledge manager in a variety of settings.

Unfortunately, most of the projects and thinking on which these papers are based took place well before 1992, and in some instances even before 1990, and the technology employed in the most far-reaching of these is a state-of-the-art technology for that period. What has happened since then, however, has been an explosion of information resources, information tools, and information networks, which gives most of the practical

example papers and some of the theoretical observations in this volume only a historical interest. This volume makes clear the astonishing pace of change in the last three years. The key realities of today's and next week's design platform—concepts such as client-server architecture, readily available and relatively inexpensive hardware for the "scholar's workstation," Internet access mechanisms such as Gopher, Gopher+, World Wide Web, and emerging cross-platform information retrieval standards such as Z39.50—all of these form the basis of today's thinking, and all are largely missing from the discussion.

This means that the case studies for end-user system design offered by Cole and Tiefel or the design of a computer-based training system for library staff given by Joe Rader, for example, are of primary interest less as *solutions* to current access and training problems than as exercises in the process of design: how to define the problem parameter set, engage the audience actively in the creation and refinement of information systems appropriate to the problem, evaluate hardware and software options, and create test beds to adjudicate the success of the information solution to the given problem. And indeed the authors are aware of this and note that changes in network architecture, the growth of user expectations, and the influx of materials needing online access will lead them to find new solutions that go beyond the efforts they describe here.

Similarly, the options available for network access for public libraries or communities have expanded dramatically in the years since Polly's work at Liverpool Public Library and since the creation of Free-Net in Cleveland (described by Arlene Sievers). But each offers valuable insights into the process of advancing access in areas where such advances are rather more hard-fought than in academia. Polly's paper also offers a series of appendixes that point users at the beginning of the connectivity path along the way, and these retain their value as pointers to processes, even if some of the factual information is out of date.

In the end, the essays that will retain the greatest interest are those that attempt to place the issues of system design and integration into a larger context. Richard Lucier's cogent vision of a "Knowledge Management Environment" attempts to integrate the primary components of the knowledge-based and knowledge-creating enterprise of the medical library into a single, modularized system. In such a system, online bibliographic databases of the library's collection are augmented by online full-text and image publishing, by cooperative databases created by the institution's scholars, and all are integrated by access tools designed specifically to meet the demands of the institution's scholarship. This is a vision based on a model of scholarly communication that may well be more strongly in evidence in the health sciences, Lucier's field, than in others, but it is, as a model, compelling in its attempt to take the librarian's role as an information manager, access integrator, and service provider seriously. The degree to which such a unitary vision will or can succeed in the more heterogeneous "knowledge environments" to which readers of this volume are accustomed is unknown. Nevertheless, it is, as a concept, worth the attention of any librarian or information professional.

Carolyn Gray's exposition of the Gesher Project, a design effort undertaken by Brandeis librarians and DEC software engineers, is important for its description of what she calls the "participative design" process, and a fundamental grounding in design methodology. The innovative design decision to employ ethnographic researchers as participants in the interviews of the target faculty and research population led to an understanding of the scholarly information process and targets for data management that would have probably remained elusive otherwise. In both cases, the insights that matter come from an understanding, either first-hand or gained through research, of the information that management requires.

In a certain way the volume succeeds probably better than the authors and editors imagined; it is the *design process* that holds our attention as readers, not the specifics of a given project. Perhaps future editors of these proceedings will take a page from the design lessons of this volume, and devise a plan that will permit the electronic publication and dissemination of future proceedings, perhaps a plan that would permit the clinic to be conducted online. Such a system might have the added advantage of making the fruits of the clinic available to the intended audience more quickly, enliven the discussion, broaden the audience, and bridge the gap, even more deeply felt in these times, between the act of creating knowledge and giving it an enduring format.—Jim Coleman, *Research Libraries Group, Inc., Mountain View, California*.

Maack, Mary Niles, and Joanne Passet.

Aspirations and Mentoring in an Academic Environment: Women Faculty in Library and Information Science. Westport, Conn., Greenwood, 1994. 232p. \$49.95 (ISBN 0-313-27836-9).

Greenwood presents this volume as "the first book-length study of women in library education." That it took until 1994, after more than a century of library education, to develop such a book already tells us a great deal about women in library education. The authors, themselves library educators, have examined career development, opportunities and obstacles, and the effects of mentoring.

Beginning in 1989 and running through 1990, the authors first held discussions with women faculty at eight library schools in various regions of the United States, conducted telephone interviews with one hundred women (out of the 236 full-time female faculty in accredited U.S. library schools and programs), and presented preliminary findings at the 1990 annual conference of ALISE (Association for Library and Information Science Education) in Chicago. The comments of five library school deans at that meeting are included in the book.

Maack and Passet have read widely in relevant material from librarianship, education, sociology, and social work, and their bibliography includes both classics in the field (Clifford Geertz, David Riesman, William Chafe, Robert Maynard Hutchins, etc.—all men, you'll note) and current writings about mentoring, and careers in academe. They define a mentor as "someone senior to you in the field who actively works for your advancement. A mentor can also be a role model." In the course of their research they soon found that it made a difference when female faculty got their education and began their academic careers, so they divided their respondents into three cohorts: those who graduated from college before 1955 (35 women), those who graduated between 1956 and 1965 (32 women) and those who graduated in 1966 or later (33 women). We can recognize from the dates some of the events that affected those who lived through each period—the Depression of the Thirties, World War II, the feminist movement.

Carefully and conscientiously, the authors document from their sample the benefits many women faculty have derived from mentoring and being mentored. Starting at home with the influence of mothers and fathers, many women begin to assess their roles in the world around them, and many of the respondents in this study found encouragement and direction in their families. Even negative mentoring—parents who sought to steer their daughters into safe havens of marriage and family—can serve to push determined women toward careers in academe. For many women mentoring does not play a major role in their education until they reach the graduate level. At that point faculty, most often the dissertation adviser, can play a crucial role in the long slogging process toward a degree. He or she can encourage, point out areas of research, coauthor articles or papers, clarify the tortuous roads of academic politics—or, on the contrary, become one of the barriers women in academic positions have to batter down or climb over. Almost all the

women interviewed have encountered barriers and, very often, these are gender barriers. Women have learned that there is indifference or outright antipathy to their entry and advancement in faculty positions. The authors announce early on that they "occupy an 'engaged' position," not one of "neutrality or impartiality," and it is to their credit that they know the limitations of "objectivity."

On the whole this book is a valuable contribution to library education literature, although there might be some question about whether it is as valuable as its \$50 price. Nevertheless, the book suffers from some of the absurdities of much social "science" writing. It is replete with the jargon of sociology. Discussions become "focus group sessions," influences become "orientation others," by which they mean parents, or "role specific significant others," by which they mean faculty colleagues and such. The book includes a plethora of tables, charts, graphs and other "illustrations" and the usual hiccuping style of "serious" writing: (Rich, 1986), (Chamberlain, 1988: 372), (see Appendix A, table A-1), etc., but it's probably wise to accede to accepted forms no matter how unhelpful. What is more disturbing is

what Maack and Passet leave out. They refer very briefly to the pressures on academics, and women academics in particular, to strive for competence rather than significance in their writing, since innovative research leads to fewer papers and less recognition. What it really leads to is *controversy*, which the authors don't mention and which certainly limits one's chances of advancement to tenure. From this study one might conclude that there are *no* minority women on library school faculties or enrolled in library doctoral programs. Is this true? Then shouldn't it be noted? Are the career problems of an African American or Asian American or Latina woman different, more severe, less mentored? No such questions ever come up in the book. Finally, the responses to the interview questions (listed in Appendix E) have been codified, analyzed, and reported, but what would have made this a more riveting book would have been the stories, biographies, asides of these one hundred women who have clambered up the academic ladder. But then that kind of book wouldn't have qualified as a "refereed publication," which is what counts in the academic arena.—Fay M. Blake, *University of California, Berkeley*.

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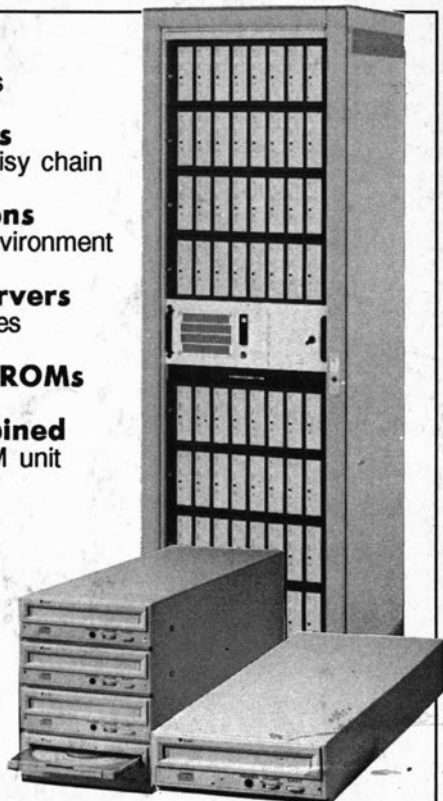
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